

SOCIAL EDUCATION

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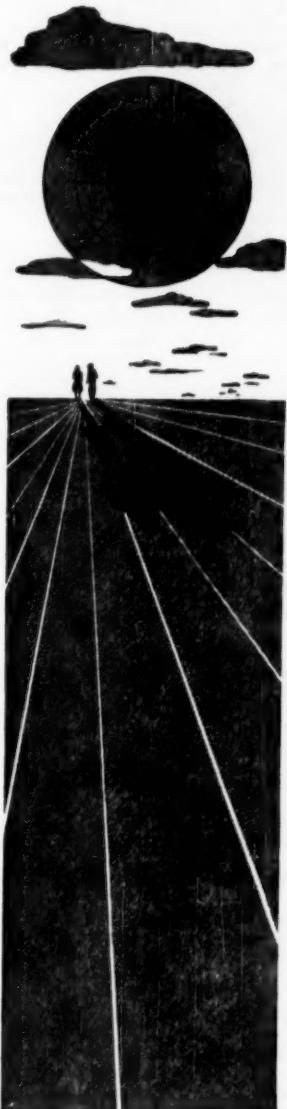
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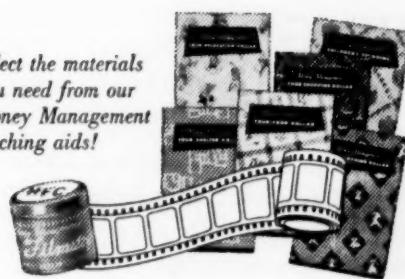
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Editor's Page

JUGGLING ACT

Not so long ago we took the time to do something we should have done many years ago. We turned to Webster for a definition of the term, "social studies." The definition wasn't there! Now ours is the big *Webster's New International Dictionary*. It has definitions of "camouflage" and "tank," two of many new terms that emerged from World War I, about the same time the term, "social studies," began to be used. And "social science" is defined. So, too, in the following order, are "social secretary," "social selection," "social service," "social settlement," "social shop," and "social statics."

"Social studies" should appear between "social statics" and "social units." But it doesn't, and we can only hazard a guess as to the reasons for the omission. A definition, according to Webster, is the "setting of limits." Apparently the Webster compilers decided they couldn't "set limits" to the social studies, and, frustrated by their inability to define the term, simply dropped the card with "social studies" on it into the wastebasket.

Maybe if we, and the dictionary people, could agree on what we mean by the "social studies," there wouldn't be so much confusion and so many attacks on social studies teachers and social studies programs.

In some schools, "social studies" is—or are—history, geography, economics, government (political science), and sociology. The courses are so labeled and so taught. In other words, these schools are teaching what the college catalogues list as "social sciences," and the only difference between the secondary school version and the college version is the amount of material covered and the thoroughness with which it is discussed, but even this is a loose distinction, for the best secondary schools often do a better job than the poorer colleges.

In other schools the "social studies" are a mixture of "traditional" courses and "fused" or "blended" or "integrated" or "correlated" programs of history and geography, or history and literature, or some other combination of "subject material."

In a relatively small number of schools the "social studies" are built into a "core program" which is organized around a number of presumably fundamental questions or topics with the "subject matter" itself coming, presumably, from all fields of learning. (We can't forego the "presumably" qualification, for there is obviously a considerable difference of opinion in regard to what is and what is not important.)

There are, of course, stock definitions for the "social studies," and maybe some teachers find these definitions useful. We don't. For instance, the statement that the term "social sciences" applies "to the scholarly materials about human beings and their interrelations" whereas "the social studies are designed primarily for instructional purposes" seems to us to raise more questions than it answers.

But the confusion over the meaning of the term "social studies" is not confined to the matter of definition. Through the years we have added ingredient after ingredient to the "social studies" brew until it now includes everything from driver education to personal grooming—and we're still tossing ingredients into the boiling kettle at an alarming rate.

A number of years ago we spent an afternoon at a circus in a small country town. Our most vivid memories of that afternoon include the heat, the milling crowds, the dust, the noise, the smells—and the jugglers. They, the jugglers, were good. We remember one in particular. His act began when his attendant, a ballet-skirted girl, tossed him a couple of plates. He started these going. Then the girl tossed him a third, a fourth, a fifth, a sixth. We lost count at number six, but the girl kept on tossing them to him. Every time she threw in an additional plate we thought, "This is impossible." But it wasn't impossible, and before long the air was filled with hands and arms and whirling disks. We began to think that the man would never stop, that there were no limits to the juggler's skill, that he could handle all the plates the girl could find to toss him. But reason told us that the man had a carefully calculated limit, that he obviously had a breaking

point, and we began to wonder what would happen if the girl inadvertently or by design threw him one too many plates. Would the act collapse in a frantic waving of arms and the mad clatter of crashing crockery? Or would the juggler, overcome by utter frustration, simply drop his arms to his sides, let the plates fall where they would, and walk out of the ring in as dignified a manner as the occasion permitted? The girl didn't tempt fate, of course, for she knew her business and she knew when to stop, and the act ended successfully amid a fanfare of horns and much bowing, and a gang of roustabouts ran in and scooped up the juggler's paraphernalia while the man and the girl stepped out of the ring and jauntily walked through the tent and back to their dressing rooms.

Every time we think of the juggling act, we think of the social studies. For a substantial number of years, social studies teachers have been doing an almost impossible job, and doing it with considerable skill. But the "plates" keep flying in. In recent years social studies teachers have been tossed at least a partial responsibility for guidance, vocational counseling, marriage counseling, personal grooming and etiquette, driver education, air-age education, health education, remedial work for slow readers, speed-up work for gifted students, intercultural relations, intergroup relations, international relations and world citizenship, control of juvenile delinquency, emphasis on moral and spiritual values, and the

mastery of the new materials and tools and techniques in the fields of sociodrama and audio-visual aids. Each of these areas of education is important. Whether they are all equally important is another question, and whether they all belong in the social studies program is still another question.

But the biggest question of all is, where will it all end?

Obviously, there is a limit to what can be done in the name of the social studies, just as there was a limit to the number of plates the juggler could handle. Sometime, somewhere, the one-too-many "plate" will come flying at the social studies profession, and in complete frustration, what with low salaries, lack of recognition, and continual harassment, teachers will simply throw up their hands and desert the educational ring for more attractive and "possible" careers.

What we need, soon and badly, is a thorough and thoughtful analysis of the social studies program in relation to the whole curriculum and with the needs of civic education in our time a focal point for all consideration. There must be priorities; not all of man's literally limitless activities are of the same order of importance. We can think off hand of a dozen Foundations that could profitably drop a grant of money into a study designed to establish some of these priorities, and in so doing free social studies teachers from the frustration of what will soon become, if it has not already reached this point, an impossible juggling act.

Creative Writing Contest

Library collections of children's books valued at \$1,750 will be awarded to the schools submitting the most interesting portfolios of creative writing by children in grades 4 through 8. First prize will be \$1,000 worth of books; the second and third prizes will be library collections of books valued at \$500 to \$250 respectively. These prizes are being offered by Walter Farley, author of the famous Black Stallion and Island Stallion books published by Random House.

The purpose of the contest is to encourage teachers, principals, and librarians to foster truly creative writing among boys and girls in the middle grades, working individually or in groups. Entries may be imaginary stories, factual reports, essays, poems, verses or any combination

of these *so long as the subject is HORSES.*

Each portfolio must be a collection of the creative writing work of at least six and no more than 12 children in grades 4 through 8 or in any one of these grades. To be eligible, each portfolio must be selected and submitted by a teacher, principal, or librarian. There may be only one entry from a school. No entry from an individual child will be considered.

Entries may be submitted any time after November 1, 1957, and up to March 15, 1958. Announcement of the winning schools will be made September 1, 1958. Entry blanks and a list of the contest rules may be secured from Walter Farley Writing Contest, Random House, Inc., 457 Madison Ave., New York 22, New York.

Historiography as Related to Criminology and Cognate Sciences

Sydney H. Zebel

THE speakers who have preceded me this morning¹ have discussed the contributions which sociology, social work, medicine, psychiatry, and political science can make to the field of criminology. Historiography or history—in this paper I shall use the terms interchangeably—has also various important contributions to make. It is my intention to explain what these contributions are through a discussion of the scope of history, the different schools of American historiography, and the newer concepts evident in the field.

In ancient Greece, it was possible for one person to master virtually every important field of knowledge. The great Greek scholar Aristotle, for example, wrote so profoundly on such a great variety of subjects that his works represent a veritable encyclopedia of classical Greek culture. Even a partial listing would include philosophy, logic, ethics, religion, politics, rhetoric, poetry, and zoology. However, universal scholarship became more and more difficult with the passage of the centuries and is completely impossible today. Differing methodologies and the enormous growth of factual data have made specialization imperative and further specialization within the specialty desirable. It is a common complaint among contemporary scholars that they are unable to keep abreast of the vast outpouring of new studies even in their own field.

Specialization, of course, has both advantages and disadvantages. The main disadvantage lies in the increasingly rigid compartmentalization of knowledge and the isolation of scholars even in related areas. Witness the complaints of university students, who bemoan the fact that they seem to be learning more and more about less and less. On the other hand, specialization makes

possible improvements in methodology, mastery of the material in at least one field, and more thorough research than would otherwise be possible. If contemporary efforts to remove the barriers to communication between different fields prove successful, specialization may also result in better over-all perspective, richer insights, and more profound synthesis.² In my opinion, this session of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, which seeks to mobilize various social sciences in the service of criminology, is an example deserving of widespread imitation.

In our age of specialization, history, by reason of the universality of its subject matter and its concern with synthesis, can act as a centripetal force for the fragmented world of scholarship. Obviously, the narrow definition given by the nineteenth century English historian, Freeman—that "History is past politics; politics is present history"—has long since been discarded. "In its amplest meaning," wrote James Harvey Robinson, "history includes every trace and vestige of everything that man has done or thought since first he appeared on the earth. It may aspire to follow the fate of nations or its may depict the habits and emotions of the most obscure individual."³

Though welcoming the broad subject matter scope of the "New History," most historians today find it desirable to limit the vast temporal expanse. Theoretically, historians are concerned with all of man's activities from his first appearance on this planet until the past moment. In practice, however, they abdicate responsibility for pre-literary peoples to the anthropologists and the description and explanation of very recent

¹ This paper was presented before the annual meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science and the Society for the Advancement of Criminology, held in New York City on December 29, 1956. The author is a Professor of History at Rutgers University in New Jersey.

² For a thoughtful discussion of the problems of scholarly specialization, see William F. Ogburn and Alexander Goldenweiser, editors. *The Social Sciences and Their Interrelations*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1927. p. 1-9.

³ James Harvey Robinson. *The New History*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1912. p. 1.

events to other social scientists. This first restriction is probably due to the fact that the historian is primarily concerned with civilized peoples, that is, those peoples having written records, and also to the fact that the historiography of primitive man requires highly specialized research techniques which are quite different from those needed for dealing with their literate descendants. As for the reluctance of my colleagues to deal with "current history," this stems in part from their recognition that they lack adequate documentation and, even more important, that they lack the perspective which makes possible the differentiation between significant events and unimportant occurrences. "A history-that-happens," it has been observed, "is not and in the nature of the case cannot be fully understood by the actors in it. They can not realize the 'significance' or consequences of what they are doing. . . . We understand that history only when it has become a part of our own past; and if it continues to have consequences, our children will understand it still differently."⁴

Interest in history has been manifest in virtually every society and in every time. The early Egyptian, Sumerian, Babylonian, and Hittite scribes sought to preserve for posterity the triumphs of their royal masters, although it was the ancient Hebrews who probably wrote the first true history.⁵ Herodotus, Thucydides, Caesar, Tacitus, and many others recorded the achievements and problems of classical Greece and Rome. Medieval monks wrote chronicles, annals, hagiographies, and universal histories which enlightened later generations about that great age. In modern times, Clio has inspired a veritable host of historians, professionals and amateurs alike.

Why all this interest in history? On this question, even the historians themselves are greatly divided. Generally, however, contemporary American historians may be regarded as belonging to either of two schools. One school, the advocates of history-for-history's sake, view their subject matter much as the Renaissance

⁴ John Herman Randall, Jr. and George Haines, IV. "Controlling Assumptions in the Practice of American Historians," in *Theory and Practice in Historical Study: A Report of the Committee on Historiography*. New York: Social Science Research Council (Bulletin 54), 1946, p. 20.

⁵ Burr C. Brundage, "The Birth of Clio: A Résumé and Interpretation of Ancient Near Eastern Historiography," in *Teachers of History: Essays in Honor of Laurence Bradford Packard*. Edited by H. Stuart Hughes, Myron P. Gilmore, and Edwin C. Rozwenc. Ithaca: Cornell University Press, 1954, p. 200.

humanists viewed the ancient Greek and Roman classics. These historians—"antiquarians," their critics call them—are convinced that history should be classified as one of the humanities, as an interesting, though necessarily "true," branch of literature. One of the foremost recent exponents of this philosophy is Samuel Eliot Morison of Harvard University. In his presidential address before the American Historical Association a few years ago, he declared, "Truth about the past is the essence of history and historical biography, the [only] thing that distinguishes them from every other branch of literature." Furthermore, he declared that "It matters little what 'method' the young historian follows, if he acquires the necessary tools of research, a sense of balance, and an overriding urge to get at the truth. *Courses on historical methodology are not worth the time that they take up*" (italics mine).⁶

The second large group of American historians belong to the so-called scientific school. Its disciples—I count myself among them—regard history as one of the social sciences and believe their discipline is of immense practical value. As they see it, the study of history is indispensable for understanding and dealing with present-day problems and is helpful in charting the future. The philosopher, John Dewey, succinctly expressed this point of view when he wrote, "Piety to the past is not for its own sake nor for the sake of the past, but for the sake of a present so secure and enriched, that it will create a better future."⁷

Few critics challenge the claims made for history by the first group, the humanists. Though some of the writing done by contemporary historians is pedantic, dull, uninspired, and uninspiring—written for fellow-professionals and young would-be professionals, rather than for the general public—this is certainly not true of all American historiography. Many American historians, including Parkman, Motley, Prescott, Freeman, Sandburg, Van Wyck Brooks, Catton, and Morison himself, have shown that these weaknesses are not inherent in the subject mat-

⁶ Samuel Eliot Morison, "Faith of a Historian," *The American Historical Review*, 56:262, 263; January 1951; cf. Morison's *History as a Literary Art: An Appeal to Young Historians*. Boston: Old South Leaflets, 1950.

⁷ John Dewey, *Human Nature and Conduct, An Introduction to Social Psychology* (1922), p. 21, as cited in G. J. Renier, *History: Its Purpose and Method*. Boston: The Beacon Press, 1950, p. 31; cf. Conyers Read, "Social Responsibilities of the Historian," *The American Historical Review*, 55:283-285. January 1950.

ter. Their works have an enduring literary quality and have enriched our cultural heritage.

On the other hand, numerous criticisms have been directed against the social science historians, especially by philosophers interested in epistemology. The latter have challenged historians to prove causality, to show the existence of universal laws of history, and to predict accurately the future course of events. These challenges have been honestly recognized by many members of my profession. Efforts have been made to demonstrate cause-and-effect relationships, even though it is admitted that man is "the greatest variable in nature."⁸ Universal laws of history have also been formulated—by non-Marxists like Spengler and Toynbee, as well as by the Marxist historians—though their validity has not been established to the satisfaction of non-believers.⁹ As for prediction of the future, it has been remarked that historians have done as well in this matter as most other social scientists.

In the past few decades, a growing number of American historians have sought to reappraise the meaning and value of history. Numerous books and brief essays have been written on the subject. No less than three of the six articles in a recent issue of *The American Historical Review* were concerned with historiography.¹⁰ Many of the presidents of the American Historical Association have chosen this as the theme of their presidential addresses, and it has been discussed frequently by panels at the association's annual meetings. However, most significant of all probably are two lengthy studies published during the past 10 years by the committees on historiography of the Social Science Research Council.

The first of these publications appeared in 1946.¹¹ The committee, headed by Merle Curti of the University of Wisconsin and including such other distinguished historians as Charles A. Beard and Louis Gottschalk, felt the need to prepare a manual "designed to help clarify thought about history and to aid historians in teaching and writing about it."¹² The social science ap-

proach was explicit throughout. Beard contributed two essays, one setting forth the grounds for a reconsideration of historiography and the second discussing problems of terminology in historical writing. Other members of the committee surveyed the major influences affecting the study and writing of American history in recent generations and provided a case study of the treatment of causality in writings about the Civil War. Finally, the committee, after consulting scores of other American historians, drew up a list of 21 fundamental propositions which it considered important for the advancement of historical scholarship.

The list is too long to be given here *in toto*. Nevertheless, we might mention a few of these propositions with a view to indicating the general line of approach followed by the committee. The first proposition recommended that the historian aim not only "to compose accurate accounts and analyses of selected portions of the past" but should also seek "to provide credible explanations of the development of contemporary events, thoughts, manners, and institutions." The second recommended that the historian extend his "research and thought as far as possible in the direction of comprehensiveness and synthesis. . . ." The third asserted that historiography is all-important to other branches of knowledge and offered the following reasons in support of its position:

(1) All the data used in the social sciences, in the humanities, and in the formulation of public and private policies are drawn from records of experience in, or writing about the past; . . . (2) all policies respecting human affairs, public or private, and all generalizations of a non-statistical character in the social sciences and in the humanities involve interpretations of or assumptions about the past; and . . . (3) all workers in the social sciences and in the humanities are personalities of given times, places, and experiences whose thinking is consequently in some measure conditioned and determined by the historical circumstances of their lives and experiences."¹³

Most of the other propositions were essentially negative in character. They cautioned against the belief that complete knowledge of the past is attainable. Objective historiography was deemed impossible on the ground that the historian will inevitably select his facts in accordance with his own personal experiences, interests, or frame of reference. Warnings were also issued against a variety of common methodological errors, such as the acceptance of the absolutes of certain theologians and philosophers, loose

⁸ Marc Bloch. *The Historian's Craft*. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1933, p. 197; Louis Gottschalk. *Understanding History: A Primer of Historical Method*. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1951, p. 209-227.

⁹ For a discussion of the "laws" of history, see Renier, *op. cit.*, Chapter V.

¹⁰ The issue for October, 1956.

¹¹ *Theory and Practice in Historical Study: A Report of the Committee on Historiography*. New York: Social Science Research Council (Bulletin 54), 1946. Hereafter cited as S.S.R.C., *Bulletin* 54.

¹² *Ibid.*, p. vii.

¹³ *Ibid.*, p. 154-155.

thinking about causality, and the confusion of laws of history with "constants" and "repetitions." In general, the propositions revealed the influence of what has been called the subjectivist-relativist-presentist philosophy, in contradistinction to the positivism of nineteenth century German historian Ranke and his followers.

This 1946 report met with considerable criticism and stimulated further self-examination on the part of American historians.¹⁴ A few years later, therefore, another committee on historiography was selected by the Social Science Research Council to reconsider some of these same problems with a view to providing more positive guidance to the profession. This new committee was headed by Thomas C. Cochran of the University of Pennsylvania. Since three of the six members, including the chairman, had participated in the earlier study, it was not surprising that the general philosophy was about the same. The Cochran Committee report,¹⁵ when finally published two years ago, consisted of two main parts. One stressed the importance to the historian of methods of inquiry developed in the other social sciences. The other was concerned with a discussion of the subject matter and methodology of history itself.

The Cochran Committee, like its predecessor, took the position that history should be regarded as a social science, not as a branch of the humanities. It made no attempt to define the term "science" or "social science" but declared that historians have consistently affirmed the "necessity of analyzing historical data rigorously" and that for some generations "the practice as well as the philosophy of historians has reflected the scientific spirit."¹⁶ As the committee saw it, the remaining problem was "one of making more explicit as a matter of practice the status already recognized in principle—of making investigation more penetrating, analysis more precise, and demonstration more rigorous."¹⁷ These were problems which it felt that other sciences, as well as history, must always face.

¹⁴ For two critical analyses of S.S.R.C., *Bulletin* 64, see W. Stull Holt, "An Evaluation of the Report on Theory and Practice in Historical Study," *Pacific Historical Review*, 18:236-238; May 1949, and Chester McArthur Destler, "Some Observations on Contemporary Historical Theory," *The American Historical Review*, 55:509-529; April 1950.

¹⁵ *The Social Sciences in Historical Study: A Report of the Committee on Historiography*. New York: Social Science Research Council (Bulletin 64), 1954. Hereafter cited as S.S.R.C. *Bulletin* 64.

¹⁶ S.S.R.C., *Bulletin* 64, p. 21.

¹⁷ *Ibid.*

The theory of history expounded by the committee was consistent with this approach. It denied that every historical event was unique on the grounds that it would then be completely impossible to comprehend the past and that no generalization whatsoever could be made by the historian. "Each historical event is unique, to be sure, in some respects," declared the report; "but it is also similar in other respects to other historical events."¹⁸

The importance of social science concepts and techniques to the historian was repeatedly stressed. However, the committee believed that the non-historical sciences stood to gain as much from cooperation with historians as historians stood to benefit from cooperation with other social scientists. "In strict logic," it asserted, "the only evidence available to any social scientist, no matter what his specialty, is historical evidence. Yet social scientists in general have shown little awareness of the rich field of exploration that recorded history offers them, and have in many instances signally failed to grapple with the analysis of temporal processes."¹⁹

The difficulties of inter-disciplinary cooperation were fully recognized. The committee believed that these were not primarily the result of linguistic barriers, that is, the technical jargon of certain of the social sciences. Instead, it placed the blame on certain parochial-minded historians and other social scientists, who have failed to realize the significant functions being performed by each. The committee felt that these barriers to understanding could be eliminated through mutual cooperation and intercommunication. More specifically, it recommended that historians integrate their research with that being done in the other social sciences and that social scientists join with historians in working together on "shared tasks."²⁰

What would be the value for the historian of such cooperation with the non-historical social sciences? The committee suggested three specific benefits. First of all, acquaintance with the other social sciences would help the historian to avoid superficial generalizations and oversimplification of historical problems. Secondly, it would help him to select significant research problems and to see relationships which otherwise he might miss. Finally, the social science approach would

(Concluded on page 254)

¹⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 25.

¹⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 31.

²⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 32.

Television, Conservation, and Community Resources

Edward L. Biller, Jr.

THREE is a tingle of excitement when the floor director yells, "Stand-by." The studio becomes deathly quiet and still. The stillness is only momentary. Life returns as the director points his finger and signals for action. The little red eyes on the television camera light up, and the program is underway.

Action under the bright lights of the television studio is the result of much planning and many rehearsals. The television programs given by the Baltimore City Department of Education are no exceptions.

Each year the Geography Department is responsible for a number of television programs which from time to time have varied in their points of emphasis. Some were prepared primarily for viewing by the general public in order to demonstrate what goes on in a modern geography classroom. Others were prepared for classroom viewing by secondary school pupils.

This year the assignment consisted of 10 television programs of 15 minutes each designed for viewing by seventh grade students. In this series the use of community resources proved most valuable in planning, executing, and evaluating the programs.

Planning is the first and most important phase of a television program. Many decisions need to be made during this stage. What is the scope of the program? What topic will be covered? Who will present the programs? Are the programs consistent with our philosophy of educational television?

In planning television programs for the classroom we are guided by our television philosophy. We believe that television has a definite place in the teaching of geography when it presents people, places, demonstrations, artifacts, and

other materials not readily available to the classroom teacher. All geography programs are planned with these ideas in mind.

Equipped with this philosophy we began thinking about a topic. The Maryland Unit which is studied by our seventh grade geography classes was chosen for this year's general subject. To further limit the topic we decided to concentrate on conservation of natural resources in the State of Maryland, an area offering many opportunities to present materials which could not be brought into every classroom.

Ten program topics covering the conservation of eight of Maryland's natural gifts were selected. This series of programs was given the name "Maryland Treasure Chest." The selected topics were as follows:

- 1 Introduction and Overview
- 2 Our Soil Treasures
- 3 Our Water Treasures
- 4 Our Mineral Treasures
- 5 Our Forest Treasures
- 6 Our Wild Life Treasures
- 7 Our Marine Treasures
- 8 Our Scenic Treasures
- 9 Our Human Treasures
- 10 Summary—Adding Up Ideas

To keep the series consistent, we felt that each program should provide answers for some specific questions. The following questions were stressed at the beginning of the series and reference made to them in each of the programs.

- Where are our natural gifts located?
- Why are our natural gifts valuable?
- How do we use our natural gifts?
- What are we doing to conserve our natural gifts?

The next big step in the planning process was to secure outstanding people who could present the programs for twelve-year-olds. Here we turned to the community.

The Maryland Board of Natural Resources maintains a division of research and education. This seemed to be a good starting place. Their director of education was most cooperative and enthusiastic about the plans for the series of programs on conservation. He gave up much

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of his time, energy, and talents to get the programs underway.

With the cooperation of this outside agency, a tentative list of participants was made. Those people, experts in their various fields, had access to many demonstrations, models, artifacts, and other visual materials. These people included the State Soil Conservationist, the Assistant State Forester, the Director of the Chesapeake Bay Biological Laboratory, the Director of Education for the Board of Natural Resources, a geologist from the Geological Survey, a game warden representing the Game and Inland Fish Commission of Maryland, and the Supervisor of Science for the Senior High Schools of Baltimore City.

Each of these people was sent a letter outlining the scope of the series, suggesting the barest of outlines for a program on his specialty, and asking him if he would present such a program. The entire group was invited to meet for a planning session to discuss the series as a whole and the particular responsibility to be accepted by each participant. Of the original people invited to present programs no one refused!

The planning session for each program began several weeks before the presentation date. It was necessary to make sure that each program would be of the nature and level to benefit our seventh grade pupils.

The Specialist in Radio and Television from the Department of Education was invited to these sessions. She had many ideas and suggestions to add to those of the experts as to the proper movements, content, visual aids, and timing of the program.

The chief difficulty in the planning was the time limitation of 15 minutes allotted for each program. In most cases this necessitated covering only the most important aspects of each topic; many interesting and colorful details had to be omitted.

All decisions about the content of the program were made at the planning session. Every resource person had ideas about what would be said on the program; what visual material would be used; and what art material in the nature of signs, flash cards, special pictures, or lettering needed to be made.

We drew heavily upon community resources in the planning stages of the telecasts and even more heavily when the actual programs were presented. Of course, the richest source was the people who presented the programs, but this was not the only use we found of the community.

In securing many of the props, models, and exhibits which were used in the series, we went to a variety of sources.

In addition to the wealth of materials which each of the experts could furnish we scouted many areas. We went to an athletic club for stuffed Maryland animals, The Natural History Society of Maryland for collections of minerals and fossils, the Baltimore Safety Council for posters dealing with school safety, the Department of Health Education of the Baltimore Schools for posters dealing with nutrition and hygiene, the Heart Association and the Maryland Tuberculosis Association for posters, several private slide collections for various scenes of Maryland's natural gifts, the Enoch Pratt Library for many facts and materials, and the art department of WAAM-TV as well as the art departments in several schools for the many small but important art jobs which add the finishing touches to any program.

Once the material was collected it was assembled at the studio and properly arranged for a rehearsal. The rehearsals were held at the studio early on the morning of the telecast at which time all of the movements of the program were run through. All special shots and close-ups were noted by the program director so that he could direct the cameramen to be at the right spot at the right time to get the proper picture.

Tension mounted as the starting time drew close. Perhaps the most exciting program was "Our Wild Life Treasures." We felt that this program with its live animals would appeal to most younger adolescents.

The opening shot showed a close-up of a model of a dinosaur with the comment, "At one time Maryland's wildlife may have looked like this! Many, many years have passed, however, since a creature such as this roamed earth." After a brief introduction the guest was called on the set. The guest, Mr. Murvin Meyers, is a game warden with the Game and Inland Fish Commission. He came equipped with live specimens of many of the animals which are indigenous as well as important to Maryland.

Mr. Meyers briefly told about the function of the Game and Inland Fish Commission; then he presented his first animal. The quail didn't seem at all ruffled by the cameras, lights, or Mr. Meyer's handling. The importance of the bird to Maryland farmers was discussed and its general distribution throughout the state was made visual by sticking silhouettes of quail on a large outline map of Maryland.

A deodorized skunk was the next performer. He was the best actor on the set. Mr. Meyers told how the skunk was helpful to the people of Maryland, and then went on to show how widely skunks were distributed throughout the state of Maryland.

The pheasant provided a beautiful third exhibit. If the telecast had been in color, students would have been enchanted by the bird's interesting coloring. Maps of the United States and Maryland were used to show where the pheasant makes his home.

It was impossible to have a live deer in the studio, but a slide showing the picture of a deer did the next best job. Our expert pointed out the value of deer to the state of Maryland in terms of economic value to sports stores, garages, motels, hotels, eating establishments, as well as the actual value of the venison. The necessity for harvesting "game crop" to maintain the proper balance between game population and food supply was stressed time and again. The silhouette of deer, placed on the Maryland map, showed the major deer concentrations in Maryland.

The remainder of the program included a raccoon named "Jessie James" and slides of beaver and muskrat. Several other animals were at hand in case there was some time available for more discussion. The program host was able to control the timing and to conclude the discussion on time. In concluding the wildlife program, suggestions were given the students for things which they could do personally to help conserve Maryland's wildlife. In each program these suggestions were meaningful, practical, and the terms used were easily understood by urban students.

The final program was the most important. In this program the facts and ideas which viewers had learned in the first nine programs were organized to build major understandings.

All programs had stressed the fact that natural gifts alone do not make a treasure. For example, in the program about minerals stress was placed upon the fact that minerals have been present in the earth for thousands of years. Minerals become treasures only when they are available and when a use can be found for them. Some American Indians knew about petroleum. To them the mineral had little value except as a medicine or skin oil. An Indian could have sweated and strained pulling a heavy load over land oozing with oil, never realizing that the dark green liquid was capable of moving the heaviest of loads. He did not possess the ideas necessary to make a treasure valuable.

The final program stressed that treasures depend upon several things. First, the natural gift must be present. Second, there must be people who can use the gift. Third, the people must have definite ideas about the use of the natural gift. When all three of these are combined, the natural gift becomes a treasure. This concept became our big understanding: *natural gifts plus people plus ideas equal our treasures.*

The soil was considered as a *Natural Gift*. Before the soil becomes valuable there must be some *people* to use it. A farmer must also possess *ideas* about agricultural methods, crops, as well as good conservation techniques before his soil is a *treasure*. Following this pattern of thinking, it was possible to recall much information from former programs and arrange it in a meaningful way.

The people who presented programs were able to contribute many useful ideas and suggestions for future programs as well as to aid in the evaluation of the series.

Evaluation of a television series is often difficult especially because there are so many intangibles to consider. In terms of program content effectiveness, and timing, however, our resource people were helpful in analyzing and evaluating the programs.

In terms of pupil reaction and growth, there was little planned evaluation, a situation which we hope to correct in the future. We were unfortunate in not having a type of "Trendex" rating, but our radio and television experts estimated the student audience at between 3000 and 4000. Most of our secondary schools have one or more television receivers which were utilized. The Department of Education furnished receivers to schools that were without sets and desired to follow the series.

The majority of the viewers were in the secondary schools, but the programs were also viewed by many upper elementary grades. We visited several elementary classrooms where students had viewed all the programs and used the information which had been presented as starting points for study. The classes as a result had investigated many aspects of the conservation problems. Secondary classes used the programs in connection with their study of Maryland, in most cases as supplemental and enrichment material.

As the television series progressed certain weaknesses became evident. The first three programs were presented as "lectures." Although this was effective it did not have the informal atmosphere which we thought desirable. This flaw was cor-

rected by having the program host become part of the presentation. He was able to ask leading questions and to make meaningful comments. In this way an air of relaxation and informality was achieved.

The chief weakness was the time limit. In most cases an adequate development of the material could not be attempted in fifteen minutes. A better program could have been presented in a thirty-minute block.

Next year we hope to continue the "Maryland Treasure Chest" series. Many of the topics which were used this year can be expanded profitably into several full length programs. We have gained much from our experience. We have learned how to keep programs informal and relaxed. We have learned that half-hour programs are the desirable length. We have also learned how very valuable community resources are in planning, executing, and evaluating television programs.

HISTORIOGRAPHY

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help the historian to measure his data more accurately, to find meaningful indices which might otherwise be overlooked, and to guard against distortions arising from bias. "A knowledge of the other social sciences," the committee stated, "will help the historian to ask more pertinent questions of his data and to avoid making hasty, oversimplistic, and even erroneous explanations of human activity."²¹

And now what specific contributions can the historian make to the other social sciences? This is a question of primary importance. The committee devoted considerable space in its report to providing the answer. It discussed the services of the historian as a transmitter of culture, as the creator of general syntheses, and as a formulator of values. However, his chief task, as the committee conceived it, "is to ascertain what has happened, to identify events in sequence, to analyze interrelationships among these events, and to discover how and why they occurred in a given order."²² Traditional narration is certainly insufficient. If the historian stops only with the descriptive function, "he is mistaking the initial task for the actual problem."²³

Reference was made earlier to the Cochran Committee's recommendation that historians and other social scientists should join in working together on "shared tasks." Though not mentioned by the committee, one area where such cooperation might prove advantageous would be research in the origin and evolution of some of the newer social sciences. Judging from a preliminary survey I have made,²⁴ criminology itself would seem

to be a particularly fruitful field. Biographies of Lombroso and other pioneer criminologists have been written and there are numerous highly specialized monographs, dealing with such diverse topics as crime in ancient Athens, the history of the Bow Street Runners, crime and punishment in Maryland, and capital trials in early Maine. However, few comprehensive histories of the science of criminology exist and none of these, to my knowledge, are available in English. There is likewise a scarcity of sound scholarly studies dealing with the general history of crime, criminal detection methods, and the treatment of criminals. If historians are correct in claiming that knowledge of the past is essential for understanding and dealing with present-day problems, also that it is helpful in charting future action, then certainly criminologists have been the losers in neglecting the history of their discipline.

Remedial action would require some time but need not prove too difficult. As a start, I believe it might be desirable to appoint a committee of criminologists and historians with instructions to make a more careful survey of the existing historical writing in the field, to recommend or possibly even arrange for translation of significant works in foreign languages, and to indicate the areas where major gaps in our knowledge exist. Consideration might also be given to the desirability of publishing collections of important primary source materials. If criminologists were to embark on such a project, I venture to say that my colleagues in the historical profession would be found willing, even eager, to assume their share of the responsibility.

²¹ *Ibid.*, p. 107.

²² *Ibid.*, p. 106.

²³ *Ibid.*, p. 86.

²⁴ Based on an examination of the Library of Congress subject catalogue, the catalogue of the New York Public

Library, and the two-volume *Bibliography of Crime and Criminal Justice*, edited by D. C. Culver. Berkeley: University of California Press, 1934-1939.

The Moonshine Curriculum

Richard E. Gross

THE school was the typical square, grayish wood building with a vestigial steeple. It was set in a clearing in the woods, just as were the homes of most of the pupils that dotted this barren, scrub pine country in the Florida panhandle. It was a four-room, four-teacher school; the principal taught grades seven and eight, and the other three instructors each also handled two grades in single rooms. Two of the teachers had recently enrolled in an in-service course which called for them to come to the university campus twice a month, and for a university consultant to spend a day with them at their school once each month.

The in-service class had a large enrollment, spreading from south Georgia throughout northwest Florida. The two-way arrangement kept their university instructor on the leap. So, when my colleague heard that I would be traveling in this out-of-bounds direction, I was drafted to make the initial field service visit with Mrs. Wynn and Miss Potter.

According to my reference card, Miss Potter was working on a project to improve the diet and hygienic habits of the pupils in this pellagra-hookworm region. One facet of her program involved a school garden; another included food and health units and lessons for various grades; another aimed at providing a balanced hot lunch, and parental instruction was emphasized for the various mothers who came in from week to week to prepare the noon meals. I wondered

"The story of the 'Moonshine Curriculum' is factual," the author writes. "It took place as recorded except, of course, that the school goes unidentified and the names of the two instructors have been changed. While the conditions it reflects are happily disappearing, unfortunately they can still be found in isolated, rural school situations throughout the entire United States, not only the South. I certainly did not write the piece to make fun of anyone or any place; my hope is, rather to illustrate certain key curricular issues."

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how Miss Potter was progressing against the entrenched tradition of black-eyed peas and fatback.

As my car bumped along the dirt approach road I also noted the too-brief statement of Principal Wynn's project—"curricular revision." Well, we would see. One never knows what he will find in such small, isolated, rural schools. I had previously discovered some of the finest, unpublicized, "core" teaching one could ever hope to observe. (Perhaps when these arrangements rise out of necessity, there is more chance for success.) I had also recently visited such a building where the principal had been run off by the students just minutes before my arrival. I found most of the temporary victors in this real battle of learning enjoying themselves gambling with playing cards, provided in multiple decks for each room as the first contribution to educational improvement by the P.T.A.! Undoubtedly Mrs. Wynn's school would be in need of curricular alterations of some nature. What school isn't?

As my car rolled to a stop in front of the school, I glanced at my watch.

"Too early for lunch," I thought to myself. "It must be recess time." Barefoot children were all about the premises, playing on the steps, in the clearing, and about the fringes of the piney wood. I gathered my brief case and stepped toward the building. A strong wind carried the smoke and pleasant smell from a nearby sawmill and turpentine works, that along with the fishing provided most of the employment in the locality.

"I'm Dr. Gross," I explained to a questioning youngster. "Where can I find the principal?"

"She ain't here," was the hesitant answer.

"Besides," added another, "no one is sick here anyhow, see."

A figure appeared at the school door with bell in hand and I soon had introduced myself to Miss Potter. She exclaimed, "Oh, you couldn't have come on a worse day. One of the school trustees died and the funeral is this morning. Mrs. Wynn went to represent the school and the other two teachers are his kinfolk, so I'm left alone with the whole school!"

I pointed to the bell, "Is recess over? I'm looking forward to observing how you spread yourself into four rooms at one time and teach grades one through eight."

She replied cautiously, "I was just fixin' to call them in if your car was Mrs. Wynn's car and the other teachers. I tried to keep the kids all busy early this mornin' but they got pretty rambunctious so I had to let them out for the rest of the mornin'. You know, I can watch those little folks a lot better out here and they'll do a lot less damage."

She set the bell on the top step and we walked toward the school garden. Miss Potter was having problems with her project. I was informed that only yesterday most of the children had refused to eat the strange carrots at lunch and thereby wasted most of the school crop. Besides, this real-life evaluation proved the inadequacy of the new-vegetable emphasis in her food unit. I turned to a little blond urchin in faded gingham who was following us and asked, "Did you eat your carrots yesterday?"

"No," she answered quickly. "I'm like the rabbits that gits into the garden most nights. They knows what's good—just eat the greens and peas!"

Miss Potter nodded in sad agreement. Her project just wasn't developing as envisioned. One of the mothers who cooked that lunch had said she'd never seen such queer-shaped sweet potatoes!

Miss Potter seemed quite nervous. She glanced at the groups of children playing about the clearing and then invited me to come into the school. As we entered I overheard one little girl say, "Yo' all know he's from Tallahassee." Her schoolmate sighed, "I've never been there. Wonder what it's like in a big city?" As we walked down the squeaky floored hall toward Miss Potter's room I shook my head over the isolation that marked these children in this community. I was reminded of the boy who was reciting a geography lesson in a nearby school. The teacher had asked for the four seasons and he sagely listed, "'Possum, fishin', duck, and deer."

I asked Miss Potter if I might see the children's work on their food unit. I commended her on the bulletin board but was certainly not impressed by the odd-shaped and off-colored fruits and vegetables drawn by the pupils; but then, many of them had never seen some of the produce they were drawing. Miss Potter was at the open window watching the children outside. Suddenly she turned to me.

"Dr. Gross, haven't you overheard or noted what's going on out there? I just don't know what to do or if I should tell Mrs. Wynn what has happened." I walked to the window to take a more careful look into the bushes.

Nothing seemed seriously wrong at first observation. I then noted, however, that pupils of very different ages were all playing with one another. Indeed, the bulk of the children were participating in what seemed to be a large-scale, organized, playground-wide sociodrama! As I watched further, the pattern of this extemporaneous reality practice suddenly took on meaning. There were buyers and sellers—and it was a furtive exchange. There were producers too—cooking, stirring, and bottling. This process was conducted behind some protective bushes; guards seemed to watch the approaches. Immediately below us several third graders who had just made an imaginary purchase were already in a highly elated condition. Suddenly, out of the woods a party of sixth-grade State Beverage Department agents surrounded the area of the still. A pitched battle ensued between them and the defenders, boys and girls who were not going to give up their "juice" to the "revenoo-ers"!

Miss Potter was becoming paler by the second.

"Oh, Professor, I am so embarrassed; but you see it's their daddies' main extra-curricular activity! And these children don't know of much else for exciting play." My mind flashed back to my own boyhood days in Capone's Chicago. We had played somewhat different parts of a related game—and on the schoolgrounds too! I laughed heartily.

"The school is life," I quoted. Then I pointed to a child's textbook left open on the well-worn desk.

"Is this their current social studies?" I inquired.

"Yes," she replied. "This group is studying the ancient fertile crescent."

My point went completely over her head. She decided, "Oh, I just have to stop this. I guess I better call them back in."

A car could be heard approaching up the road.

"The funeral must be over. Should I tell Mrs. Wynn about this?" she pleaded.

"Well," I replied, "you know Mrs. Wynn and I don't. How will she react to your having released the whole school all this time as well as to a report of the dramatic play that evolved?"

"I'm not sure about the first," her voice rose in alarm. "But, oh that game; she's a very religious, non-drinkin' woman. . . ."

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The Secondary School History Teacher

Hazel C. Wolf

THE active interest of professional historians in the teaching of history in the schools below the college level is more than timely. It is long overdue. Of course, he who would study the matter must recognize that many of the obstacles to good history teaching are not peculiar to our particular field. A number of general problems hinder effective teaching in all areas. One such problem is the difficulty of recruiting an adequate number of suitable teachers for any subject or any grades. Again, the emphasis which some educators place upon numbers of pupils enrolled in the secondary schools, rather than upon quality of work accomplished there, has led to the retention in high schools of large numbers of young people of substandard ability and/or substandard ambition. Their presence in the high schools increases the schools' disciplinary and academic problems and reduces their general efficiency. Obstacles specific to adequate programs and good instruction in history also develop from time to time. For example, some administrators and some other citizens constantly call for more courses, larger enrollments and improved instruction in scientific and technological subjects. All too frequently both administrators and public forget that while much may depend in the next few years upon the work of the scientist, human competence in the lessons taught by history has lagged far behind our acquisition of scientific and technological information. Overemphasis upon the latter fields of study can threaten support of adequate offerings and good instruction in history, for many of those whose taxes support the schools are still

unmindful of the basic importance of its study.

The professional historian who urges improved teaching in history must stand against all procedures and practices which debase scholarship in any area or at any level. He must oppose the efforts of those who would subordinate the study of history to the so-called "practical" subjects. But he must at the same time seek means for improving history teaching within the framework of our present system and in the face of our current educational problems. The professional historians, then, may very properly turn their immediate attention to a consideration of the organization and content of history courses currently offered in the nation's schools, to the training of those who are to teach history, to the appointment procedures which lead to the assignment of specialists in other fields, to the teaching of history, and to developing the means for encouraging secondary school teachers to join the professional historians in a continuing effort to extend the boundaries of historical knowledge. Success in any or all of these directions will not solve all the problems of poor teaching in the secondary schools, but the urgency of the current situation demands some action.

The organization and content of history courses currently offered in the nation's schools merit attention because in all too many instances procedures run counter to the dictates of sound psychology and pedagogy. As historians we can agree that history in the broadest sense includes every facet of man's life on earth and that the ultimate, though unattainable, goal of its study is the eventual understanding of man's record in all of its complexities. Moreover, we can also agree that human learning best proceeds from an understanding of the simple to comprehension of the complex. But, to what extent are we combining these two truths as a basis for approach to effective history teaching at the present time? What of those courses, currently popular in many places, which attempt to combine the simple record of events with those fields of study which deal with man's physical environment as well as

Miss Wolf, who is Chairman of the Social Studies Department in Manual Training High School, Peoria, Illinois, read this paper at the annual meeting of the American Historical Association held in St. Louis last December. She is the author of a number of articles and of the book, *On Freedom's Altar: The Martyr Concept in the Abolition Movement*.

with many of his inter-relationships—courses which combine history with geography, political science, sociology and perhaps other subjects, sometimes several in one course—courses labeled "Social Studies" or something similar? Or of those courses which combine the study of numerous peoples, countries or periods—the *Survey of World Civilization*, or just plain *World History*? Actually, the approach of these courses is contrary to sound psychology and sound pedagogy. They proceed directly into the face of history's complexities, head on into every facet at one and the same time. The hope which the originators of the courses have for the student's understanding and appreciation of man's record in all of its complexities is commendable, but the procedure runs counter to the processes by which humans achieve such comprehension. The very breadth of knowledge in the combined areas overwhelms, confuses, and often frustrates even the earnest student. The necessity for moving from high point to high point gives the student but superficial knowledge of any area and solid understanding and appreciation of none. And the tragedy of it is that in so many instances the "survey" courses have been developed primarily for those students whose major study is in other fields—for students with the least prior knowledge of history. The absurdity of teaching broad generalizations to the least mature and least prepared minds becomes immediately apparent. In both colleges and high schools the approach *from* the general survey course *to* the specific period or topic course is unjustified. Human limitations demand that for purposes of study the general record be subdivided into definite areas which deal with a particular people or country or period. With such approach students may progress from knowledge and understanding of the comparatively simple record of specific areas toward an understanding of man's total experience on earth.

The training of those who are to teach history merits attention because a great many of those entering history teaching in the secondary schools have insufficient knowledge of the specific areas in which they are to instruct. A large number have had only survey courses and are completely unprepared to give history any meaning for adolescents to whom broad generalizations mean nothing and who must approach the study of history through specific, definite topics or periods or peoples. Many beginning teachers too, have had more instruction in methods of presenting the little historical information they have ac-

quired than they have had in the actual study of history. The prospective teacher of history needs the solid background provided by thorough study under the direction of specialists in specific areas. In addition, he needs to develop the objectivity which comes of research in which he learns to ferret out information, to distinguish between fact and fiction, to analyze problems and situations and to evaluate suggested conclusions in the light of established facts. The deficiencies resulting from training any less thorough deprive him of that objectivity and reduce his chances for teaching students, through history, to find and recognize facts, to analyze and to evaluate. Indeed, the teacher of history will do his best teaching in those areas in which he has done so much study that he feels that he might have been a participant in the very events of which he teaches.

History teachers must study history as history—the more and the more thoroughly the better.

Appointment and assignment procedures in the secondary schools merit attention because it is essential that only competent historians teach history in any of the schools. Beyond all question the interests of good history teaching are best served when the teacher is one for whom history was a major field of study in college and for whom it remains a primary interest. Certainly the interests of good history teaching are poorly served when assignments go to those who barely meet the minimum requirements customarily prescribed by state laws. Only emergency situations, of a temporary nature, should ever permit teachers to attempt to give instruction in fields for which they have not been adequately and specifically prepared. But such is not the case at present.

Many teachers who are not actually history majors are teaching high school history classes because some states establish minimum requirements for teaching certification in terms of "fields" only. This means that in those states the person who meets the minimum requirements in the field designated as "social studies" may teach any of the specific subjects included in that field. Many college students find that their school's requirements in history and related subjects total enough or nearly enough credits to enable them to qualify in many states for several specific subjects in the general social studies classification. Hence, many a prospective teacher whose major interest is in another field can pick up a comparatively easy minor in social studies. As these people apply for teaching posi-

tions in the secondary schools, budget-conscious superintendents appoint them as specialists in the field of their major interest, then, since so many qualify for any social study, parcel out history classes, one each to the specialists in the other areas of learning. Even the principal, or in small school systems, the superintendent, may take over a history class and hope that administrative duties will permit him to meet the class on most of the days school is in session. Under such circumstances, it is little wonder that so much history teaching in the secondary schools is half-hearted, dull, colorless, and, of course, ineffective.

And do not be misled that this situation exists only in the smaller schools. In the larger ones the tremendous emphasis upon competitive athletics frequently encourages equally budget-conscious administrators to look, not for teachers who can coach or assist with coaching, but for coaches—or even for assistant coaches—who can qualify under state regulations for teaching one or another of the academic subjects. This situation, too, affects history teaching, for many of the colleges encourage their physical education majors to add enough courses in history or related subjects to their programs to qualify them, under state minimum requirements, for teaching history and other specific subjects in the general "social studies" field. Hence, many history classes are taught by men whose prowess in football, basketball, baseball or even track qualify them as All-American, but whose training in history is meager. This is not to say that the coach or administrator who is also a competent historian is an impossibility. He can exist. But the odds are against our getting good history teaching from those whose major interest lies in another field, *whatever that field may be.*

The development of means for encouraging secondary school teachers to join the professional historians in extending the boundaries of knowledge and publishing the results of their studies, merits attention for several reasons. The first is the need which those teachers have for effective means of introducing to and motivating for the study of history large numbers of adolescents, most of whom are mentally and emotionally immature and many of whom, whether able, average, or dull, have a high degree of resistance to learning. The high school teacher, then, needs something beyond the vital requirement of a thorough knowledge of the specific historical areas in which he will teach. He must have that enthusiasm which makes the people and events of

which he teaches fairly live before his students' eyes. His continuous study of history, from the documents, is the shortest and most direct route to such enthusiasm, to the feeling that he himself might have been a participant in the events he chronicles. Furthermore, his study of the documents will serve an additional purpose. Not only will it expand his own total knowledge of history, but, with publication of his findings, it will also extend the boundaries of knowledge for all students of history. And there is much extending to be done. The field of local history, for example, lies virtually untouched. The high school teacher who can be encouraged to the continuous study of history from the documents both enlivens and improves his own teaching and at the same time makes significant contribution to the over-all knowledge in the field.

Furthermore, if school administrators and taxpayers are ever to realize that only competent historians should be permitted to teach history, those teachers who are competent historians must demonstrate that competence. They must produce evidence which indicates to administrators and public that history teaching is only for those specifically trained for it, for those who are capable of unearthing and evaluating new information and who can interpret that information to others. Of course, enthusiastic and vigorous work in the classroom can alert students to the difference between instruction by the competent historian and that by the pseudo-historian, but historical research and publication emphasize the point to administrators and public. Through research and publication secondary school teachers can draw attention to the importance of adequate programs in high school history and certainly can underscore the further importance of instruction of a caliber commensurate with the importance of the subject. While increased interest in good courses and good teaching in history must be the primary aim of all teachers, those who have engaged in research and publication have gained community recognition, respect, and prestige not only for the study of history but for themselves as active historians. Indeed, some have found that such respect and prestige have even induced principals and superintendents to assign them extracurricular duties in accord with the dignity of their newly revealed interests and abilities. Community leaders, too, have recognized their accomplishments and have called them to positions of dignity and importance in community services—positions in which the historian's application of the lessons of his

tory to the solution of some of today's human problems can re-emphasize the importance of the study of history.

Each of the four suggested approaches to improved history teaching in the nation's secondary schools involves the same thing—an increased emphasis upon scholarship. History taught at any level in any of the schools must be *history*, not hodgepodge. Prospective teachers of history must be neither mere "surveyors" of history nor spe-

cialists in methodology. They must be competent historians. And as competent historians they are obligated not only to teach history effectively but also to contribute to the extension of the boundaries of historical knowledge. If secondary school history teaching and history teachers are to meet any of these requirements, both must shift emphasis to solid, historical scholarship. And the professional historians are the only people qualified to lead the move.

Western Pennsylvania's Historama¹

Those attending the NCSS Convention in Pittsburgh this November will have an opportunity to visit Historama, a unique presentation of social studies projects combined with a sky show depicting important events in the history of Pittsburgh. The general chairman for Historama, 1957, is Albert Goldsmith, and the theme is "Pittsburgh in a Changing World."

Historama is presented at the Buhl Planetarium and Institute of Natural Science which is located at East Ohio Street and Federal Street in the Northside of Pittsburgh. Crosstown car No. 22 takes one directly to it from the Penn Sheraton Hotel.

The idea for an Historama originated three years ago at a teachers' institute in a chance conversation with the representative of Pittsburgh's Buhl Planetarium. The Planetarium display had information about its annual Science Fair, Latin Festival, and English Week. "Why not a History Week?" we asked. Within a year, the first Western Pennsylvania Historama was held at the Planetarium under the sponsorship of the five social studies councils in the Pittsburgh area. The second show, held last fall, attracted 650 exhibits made by students from more than 50 schools. Five thousand students and adults visited the exhibition during its three-week stand.

If your council would like to experiment with an Historama, here are some pointers:

Choose a site which can accommodate not only the exhibits but also large groups of people. Since there are only a handful of planetaria in the country, a school gymnasium, an armory, or a large exhibit hall will serve your purpose.

¹ The invitation to visit the Historama here described comes to us from Mrs. Edith H. Gibbs, Chairman of the Classroom Visits Committee for the NCSS Convention in Pittsburgh, and from Mr. James G. Kehew, Chairman of the NCSS Committee on Professional Relations.

We have found it advisable to have the following committees: *Exhibit and Registration* to receive and arrange the exhibits as they arrive; *Judging* to secure the judges and oversee their duties; *Promotion* to handle all the pre-exhibition mailing and correspondence; *Local Arrangements* to secure the site, provide for guides and for extra activities for visiting students; *Publicity* to call the Historama to the attention of the general public; and *Prizes* to raise the money for and to secure the prizes. Historical societies, veterans' groups, businessmen's associations, or service clubs will often support such a worthwhile enterprise. Or several cooperating councils may subsidize the undertaking from their treasuries.

Participating teachers are notified months in advance of the exhibition so that their students may have time to prepare their projects. We have found the following project classifications suitable: Student Art; Sculpture; Panoramic Layouts; Models; Dioramas; Charts, Diagrams, and Graphs; Historical Costumes; and Maps. Notebooks and special class projects may also be used. First, second, third, and honorable mention awards are given for each category, as well as a first and a second "best-in-show" award. To equalize the competition somewhat, junior and senior high school entries are displayed and judged separately.

Teachers have found it worthwhile to hold preliminary competitions in their own schools, sending only the best projects to the Historama. This not only stimulates interest at the school, but upgrades the quality of the projects at the Historama. This also raises another possibility—State Historamas made up of winning exhibits from local or regional exhibitions. Who knows—some day there may even be a National Historama!

Preparing for International Friendships

Grace Graham and Blanche DePuy

DURING the past three years, I developed a prejudice I never dreamed I would—a prejudice against foreign students," wrote a junior in a large university. Two others in a class of 25 students, when asked to identify a group that they stereotyped, revealed antipathies for students from abroad. In each instance, these young people had deliberately cultivated acquaintances among foreign students because a former teacher or someone else had convinced them that such relationships promote better international relations.

In response to the question, "How do you characterize foreign students as a group?" all three used such words as: "They keep to themselves," "superior attitude," "complaining," "critical of the United States." (The latter comment calls to mind the words of J. B. Priestly, caustic British novelist, "But the American, when he finds out that he is not liked just because he is top dog, is shocked, bewildered, saddened, and occasionally very angry.")¹ Two students maintained that "They ought to be grateful." One labeled foreign students as "lazy."

Reporting the feelings of only three individuals does not, of course, begin to prove that a significantly large number of college students who attempt to make friends with international students becomes prejudiced in the process. Further investigation is needed to support the authors' observation that such mutual antagonism frequently does develop—perhaps because we have done so little to prepare our young adults for associations with their contemporaries in other cultures.

That few American students want to be more

than casually polite to international students is not surprising, for crossing cultural barriers is a difficult undertaking. We know for a fact, from reports of foreign student advisers and research studies, that contacts between American and foreign students are limited to a very small proportion of the American student population. Most students are too busy in their circumscribed world, or too insecure themselves, to seek out individuals who are strange, different, hard-to-know. And frequently those Americans who do make close friends among foreign students are described in their community as non-conformists, idealists, or even radicals. Moreover, on many campuses, international organizations such as Cosmopolitan Clubs, International House parties, and the like have a relatively low status among college social activities and are attended by few Americans. Even those idealistic American students who view student exchanges as a contribution to international understanding may have acquired ethnocentric, "Lady Bountiful," glamour-conscious, or sentimental attitudes toward foreigners that preclude mutual respect and intelligent toleration of differing points of view. It goes without saying that the American students belief—commonly held and frequently verbalized—that international students "ought to be grateful" arouses hostility and resentment, putting foreign guests on the defensive, like "poor relations."

How then can we teach our students to avoid the pitfalls of misunderstanding and antagonism? How can we build mature, realistic attitudes toward peoples of other lands which will prepare the way for international friendships? An oversimplified, bird's-eye view of world history will not achieve the results we desire, nor will a hackneyed approach to social studies or to a foreign language and literature. Pre-college adolescents should rather be offered a thorough knowledge of at least one culture that is quite different from their own. This implies *not* a

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¹ *Look*, April 5, 1956, p. 20.

superficial survey of history, geography and quaint social customs, but a comprehensive study of a nation's government, economics, technology, family system, educational system, literature, art, music—and, if possible, its language. Even to begin to understand a foreign culture, a student must recognize and analyze its value system, its mores and folkways; he must, through the empathy he acquires, learn not only how the people live but how they think and feel. The objectives of such a course would be to develop an acceptance of differences and an appreciation of the reasons for cultural diversity, and to augment the student's ability to communicate intelligently without bias, without chauvinism, or without the unconscious arrogance of provincialism and ethnocentrism.

An intensive study of a foreign culture might best be carried out within a core curriculum. There is no reason, however, why a qualified and interested social studies teacher could not undertake such a project. He could make use of diversified teaching methods: individual and group research; extensive reading; use of resource persons and materials; study of maps, charts, tapes, records, and films. He could enlist the cooperation of teachers in other subjects, notably art, music, literature, and foreign languages. The social studies teacher, however, grounded in sociology and cultural anthropology, could slant his presentation away from the quaint and folkloric, stressing the study of contemporary conditions within their historical and geographical and psychological cultural context. This would necessarily involve the use of journals, periodicals and newspapers, since, even in the case of neighboring Mexico, there is often as much as a 15-year lag between the publication date of the latest reference books and the present. Frequently, magazines of the nation or culture under study are easily available. There is, for example, a fine selection of popular South American magazines, some of the *Life* or *Look* format, others similar to *Time*, subscriptions to which are relatively inexpensive—thanks to the rate of exchange for United States dollars. Pan-American World Airways furnishes helpful study units about several foreign countries.² Ideally, in such a program pupils would learn to use source materials; they would develop habits of

critical thinking, see the inter-relationships of subject fields, gain an appreciation of the complexity of culture, and perhaps perceive their own culture in a more objective light.

Equally important in preparing for international friendships is a thorough grounding in one's own culture. Respect for cultural differences does not, of course, mean that one must lose his cultural identity or abandon values that are appropriate in one's own society. The foreign student is astute enough to sense that the expatriate-in-the-making is an individual who is either unable or unwilling to find a place in his own culture, and he is as uncomfortable as we in the presence of the professional maverick or the snob. On the other hand, there is the young man who branded foreign students as lazy. He wrote, "In working with foreign students, especially those from the East, I find that they complain of being over-worked and tired. American students, on the whole, seem to work harder and longer." This student is forgetting that would-be scholars from the East come from cultures in which members of their social class are unaccustomed to physical labor, and furthermore, that changes of diet and climate may affect physical stamina. More significant, he seems unaware of the Puritan *ethos* in our own culture that made a cardinal virtue of work—a value which has become a dominant characteristic of the American middle class. Therefore, without realizing that he is being ethnocentric, he condemns the foreigner who does not measure up to the standards to which Americans conform.

Perhaps the single most serious omission in preparing young people for pleasant associations with foreigners is our failure to communicate a mature concept of the meaning of democracy. Clichés and slogans are poor substitutes for the wide reading, critical thinking, and carefully planned experiences in democratic living that our students need. Foreign students may be eager to understand American democracy, but often our youth, ill-prepared in facts and conceptualizations, find it impossible to meet this challenge.

We do not mean to imply that any student, foreign or American, should be placed in the position of having to champion his own culture. Even the traveler abroad who winces when he sees a swarm of compatriot tourists will defend them heatedly from the antagonism of an outsider. No, the American student must simply be

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² Write to Superintendent, Educational Services, Pan-American World Airways, Inc., P.O. Box 1908, Grand Central Station, New York 17, for free literature.

Roger Williams Paraphrased

J. Wade Caruthers

"Last year," the author writes, "in an effort to demonstrate that living ideas from the past could be focused on and help to illuminate current issues, one of my history survey classes decided to dramatize a scene from Roger Williams' trial. The planning committee asked me to take the role of the defendant. I therefore prepared the following brief statement. Although it is drawn from a number of Williams' writings, and although it is a paraphrase rather than a collection of direct quotations, I believe it preserves the sense and spirit of what Roger Williams actually said."

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I HAVE been called to Boston before. The last time it was to be asked to take charge of the Puritan Church in this city. I refused, preferring the purer air of freedom in my own beloved Salem. Now I have been called back to Boston for the same reason I returned to Salem.¹

I am here today because you consider me a threat to our Bible Commonwealth. I stand before you charged with heresy. Before restating my position and reaffirming my faith let us examine the nature of heresy. It is a familiar thing. It has been known to all ages. Heresy is a convenient label put on a body of beliefs by the ruling oligarchy who are afraid of those beliefs. It is a device used by people who are defending something that is too weak to stand alone.

Why do you consider my beliefs heresy? What is it you are afraid of? We all came to America for religious freedom. When we got here some of us were stronger than others; some had more wealth; others had more knowledge. You gentlemen who sit in judgment of me today were among that fortunate few. Your word has become law because you could rule the minds of others; you could, by your eloquence, cause the ignorant multitude to cringe in fear of eternal damnation; you could, because of your money and arms, take by force the lands of the Indians, enslave African Negroes, and venture into West

Indian trade.² You have profited, gentlemen—you, a tyrannical self-elected oligarchy, with the laws of John Calvin in one hand, the musket and rum bottle in the other, have set up your pernicious views of human nature, fear of eternal damnation, save for the elect, and the unholy union of church and state as the only acceptable system of orthodoxy. Any views in variance with these you dub heresy. I say heresy is a changing thing. It varies with the time and with the place. It varies with who rules and for what reason.

You call my views heresy. Why? Because they are un-Christian? Is it un-Christian to believe that God does not require a uniform religion? Is it un-Christian to say that persecution does not save your conscience? Is it evil to say that a free church can exist in a free society while tolerating Jews and Gentiles of all shades of opinion?³ No, gentlemen, these things are not evil. But they are heresy to you because you know that if enough people believe these things your days will be numbered.

I see some of the brethren shifting uneasily on their benches. Surely it's not due to fatigue or boredom. Perhaps, Reverend Cotton over there can see the day when he loses his comfortable and lucrative position with the church in Boston.⁴ Brother Mather here looks fretful. Could it be that he foresees the day when the elect will lose the scepter and he will lose his grip on Harvard

¹ Williams was called to the Boston Church but refused because it had not separated sufficiently from its Anglican and Puritan forms. He was called back to Boston to stand trial before the General Court because he had defied the secular authorities (the Magistrates). This automatically put him at odds with the theocracy. Therefore, his activity was dubbed heresy by Governor Winthrop. Commager. *Living Ideas in America*. p. 499; Wertenbaker. *Puritan Oligarchy*. p. 218.

² Wertenbaker. *Puritan Oligarchy*. p. 215, 216.

³ This is the main burden of his *Bloudy Tenets of Persecution*, quoted in Commager. *Living Ideas in America*. p. 499.

⁴ The *Bloudy Tenets of Persecution* was written in England by Williams as an attack on the puritan clergy in general and against Rev. Cotton in particular. Commager. *Living Ideas in America*. p. 499.

College? The Honorable Governor's brow is clouded. Is he thinking of his monopoly on the power to grant land? What will be the result when every man in the Bible Commonwealth is a freeholder?

All these things will come to pass. No mortal man can stay the inexorable flow of other men's freedom. You, gentlemen, know this. That is why you call me a heretic. You are afraid of me because you depend on an old order and I repre-

sent the future.⁵ It is your kind who, in the name of morality and respectability, cling to the past. It took your kind a hundred years to recognize the self-evident truth that the earth was round. In the same intransigent way you now deny the self-evident truth that man is free.

⁵ Williams couldn't have said this explicitly. However, due to his influence on the eventual separation of Church and State and freedom of conscience, he became a prophet for the future.

INTERNATIONAL FRIENDSHIPS

(Continued from page 262)

aware of the significant, vital tenets of his country's political faith; he must have the ability to define and analyze democracy and to illustrate its operations when asked to do so. For example, the differences between the educational system of the United States and those of some foreign countries occasionally cause discord. The academic products of our venture into universal education are often criticized as ill-trained by the graduates of the elite, traditional educational systems abroad. Our young people, however, cannot interpret or justify the purposes of our system because they themselves may not understand this unique and significant facet of American democracy. They may not themselves comprehend its advantages and its shortcomings; they fall back upon clichés—meaningless to the foreigner—and misunderstanding finds a breeding ground.

A specific weakness in the academic background of our students seems worth mentioning. It is their inadequate knowledge of place geography. A tactless initial inquiry as to the location of a foreign student's country arouses quick animosity from the foreigner, especially if his country is in the throes of awakening nationalism. Other common sources of misunderstanding between our students and their foreign associates could be eliminated by explaining to adolescents the reasons for foreign aid, examining the ways in which the United States benefits from grants to foreign countries, and teaching the facts about scholarships to foreign students. (Actually, more than half of all foreign students are supported here by their families or their own governments. The foreign Fulbright scholars receive nothing but transportation to and from the shores of the United States.) It is quite possible that the country from which the exchange student comes has received no official American aid of any kind; yet

American students frequently adopt the patronizing assumption that their government is financing the rest of the world.

Finally, the tendency of our students to attribute a spurious glamour to all persons from exotic lands should be discouraged. A sound attitude is based upon common sense, a thorough knowledge of a foreign culture, and an appreciation of the universality of man's problems. To prevent disillusionment and subsequent placing of blame, teachers must stimulate recognition of the illusory quality of the do-good assumption that understanding must necessarily lead to liking.

Liking is, of course, an individual matter which cannot be compelled. Nevertheless, the stereotype of the group must break down and the individual members take on particular identities before any friendship worthy of the name can spring into being. In order to encourage affinity, a bright American youngster should be taught to spot as "homesick" the foreign student who complains of American food. He should expect foreign students to cluster together defensively; he should know that the position of leadership held by the United States makes it a natural target for attack. As a college student, he would be less taken aback by complaints and criticisms if, seeing his foreign contemporary as a somewhat bewildered, insecure, proud young man or woman who has many problems similar to his own, he could grant the foreign student the same latitude in complaining that he himself has taken for granted.

The school's responsibility to educate youth for international understanding is of supreme importance today. How well we are teaching for better human relationships must be measured, in some degree, by how successfully our students relate to foreigners in the college microcosm.

Vocational Counseling

Ednajo M. Forque

IF ONE of the objectives of the teaching of social studies in the secondary school is to increase economic efficiency in a democratic society, it becomes apparent that one of our major concerns must be the promotion of occupational information that will help the students to know and to understand the requirements and opportunities for various jobs. The social studies teacher, then, should most certainly be a vocational counselor.

Many different vocational units may be included in any social studies class. Some schools offer a course in community civics in order that the student may gain a clearer picture of the social order by studying the local setting. Special attention is given to the wide variety of choices available for life work. Other schools plan a unit in Problems of Democracy with the general problem of what jobs are open to high school graduates in the local community. This phase of the larger problem of choosing a life work develops after the class has investigated and discussed the broader phases of occupations. Besides the question of occupational information and choice, some attention might be given to occupational efficiency, occupational adjustment, and appreciation of the social value of work.

To stimulate the interest of the student along vocational lines, it might be well to make use of the Kuder Vocational Preference Record. This interest inventory (published by Science Research Associates, Chicago) gives a profile of preference scores in nine areas: Mechanical, persuasive, computational, scientific, literary, musical, artistic, social service, and clerical. Pupils can score the test. A pamphlet of directions gives the teacher a group of occupations listed within each of these areas. The results can be used to help students to select a general field and to study carefully an occupation of their own choice. The class might have panel discussions and oral reports on the most interesting occupations.

Let the students gather and collect the infor-

mation for themselves. After the school library has been exhausted of reference material on occupations, the students should gather free materials on jobs of particular interest to them. One of the characteristics of our industrial age is the abundance of published material for advertising purposes. While this information may emphasize a particular company, it very often will include helpful information concerning a general occupation. The national government publishes a vast amount of material for informational purposes. Within a short time the class is able to build up a considerable file of pamphlet publications together with posters, maps, and charts. The United States Department of Labor in cooperation with the Bureau of Employment Security and the U. S. Employment Service publishes pamphlets for a small fee. Particularly interesting to high school students is the "Job Guide for Young Workers" (1956-57 edition). A good book on where to find information is Gertrude Forrester's *Occupational Literature*, an annotated bibliography (H. W. Wilson Company, 1954).

The students usually enjoy something as vital as the study of occupations. Occupational information results in the student having to make a choice that involves compromise. The student must try to choose a career in which he can make as much use as possible of his capacities and interests. This should be accomplished in such a way as to realize as many of his potential goals as possible. But in seeking an appropriate choice the student must weigh the opportunities and limitations of various jobs. Therefore, the unit should be built around what the student wants to learn. Ask yourself the question, "What are my students' needs?"

After the class has explored all resources available on occupational information, they might enjoy having guest speakers from the business and industrial world discuss various job possibilities. Students are interested in various jobs from the standpoint of the type of activity, environmental conditions, and the wage-and-hour schedule. The class might also be interested in knowing about the permanence of the job, the training needed, and the privileges resulting from employment. These privileges include retirement benefits,

The author of this article teaches social studies in the Crockett (Texas) High School.

hospitalization, sick leave, and seniority rights. Some students enjoy hearing representatives from near-by colleges speak to them on such subjects as "Technical Careers for College Graduates" and "Why Go To College?"

Two excellent techniques to use in teaching about occupations are vocational guidance films and visits to places of employment. Of course, all films should be previewed by the teacher before they are shown in the class, for films dealing with employment quickly become outdated in our everchanging world of work.

The social studies teacher should be concerned with a survey of employment opportunities in the local job market and in the larger industrial centers near the local community. Many rural high school students will seek employment in these larger industrial centers, and guidance-minded teachers should be constantly aware of this fact. In order for the students to become better acquainted with existing employment opportunities, field trips may be arranged. At the discretion of the teacher, the entire class may go on such a field trip, a small group may go, or individual pupils may investigate given job areas and report their findings to the class.

In discussing a survey conducted to determine which of the two techniques, films or field trips, were the most effective, it was the opinion of Ray A. Miller that "The visitation group had a distinct advantage over the film group in that they had the opportunity to meet persons who were in a position to offer job opportunities to them. The personal contact with training directors and information as to procedures for making application to various places visited are other desira-

ble outcomes from the activities of the visitation group that were not experienced by the film group. The film group said that their main gain was that of receiving information about several occupations and jobs."¹ Although the job visits consume much more time than the showing of vocational films, the students would benefit greatly if both the films and the field trip could be included in the unit on occupations.

Young people need to know the qualifications, responsibilities, problems, and opportunities of various occupations. Many times a student may fail to choose a vocation in which he might have been successful merely because he was unaware of the existence of that type of occupation at a time when he might have prepared for it. Too many young people think that only white-collar jobs are respectable. By acquainting them with the types of activity and the environmental conditions that govern various kinds of work, they will come to realize the necessity for many occupations in our modern world and develop a respect for useful labor.

Although the procedure here described is designed primarily for use in social studies classes, the job of vocational counseling is one that should be the concern of all teachers everywhere. If we think of a vocational counselor as one who helps students to choose for themselves vocations best suited to their own potential capabilities, then, most certainly, every social studies teacher should be a vocational counselor.

¹ Ray A. Miller. "Teaching Occupations Using Films and Field Trips," *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, 31:373-375, March, 1953.

THE MOONSHINE CURRICULUM

(Continued from page 256)

"She may understand why they did it even if she does commute to this job every day," I added. I had picked up Mrs. Wynn's reference card once more and noted her home address in a larger community about twenty miles away. The words "curricular revision" took my eye again.

"Miss Potter, do you know just what kind of a curriculum project Mrs. Wynn has been working on for this course?"

"She started several," Miss Potter explained, "but they haven't developed. Lately some parents requested a greater academic emphasis in the upper grades so I think she is trying to find

a way to work some Latin into grades seven and eight. Although I don't know who would want to take it or who could teach it."

Mrs. Wynn's car came to a loud and dusty halt. She emerged, looking quite large and disturbed, and peered simultaneously at her watch and the frolicking children. "You know, Miss Potter," I whispered to my companion, "in light of the total situation I think you and I should keep this moonshine curriculum to ourselves."

Raising her hand in a mock toast, she smiled for the first time. "Here's to you," she said.

I returned the pledge, "Down the hatch!"

Role Playing

Gertrude A. Boyd

DURING the past 15 years the uses of role-playing, or sociodrama, have been greatly expanded. No doubt, the present popularity of this teaching-learning medium is derived from its value as a training device in various social, educational, and occupational activities. Recently, new patterns for sociodrama have developed through action research. Today role-playing is being used by teachers, by conference leaders, and by salesmen; it has become a part of the basic training of executives, supervisors, and research workers.

Although the term "role" was taken from the language of the state, *role-playing* should not be confused with *role-taking*. To make the distinction clear, *role-taking* is considered a finished product, but *role-playing* is a spontaneous unrehearsed action.

In the field of education the terms *role-playing* and sociodrama are frequently used interchangeably. Moreno states that sociodrama is concerned with the effect which usual, acceptable behavior has upon people when they interact with each other in usual, acceptable normal behavior. He also views sociodrama as a method for the analysis and treatment of intergroup conflicts.¹ According to the Shaftels, role playing is a form of improvisation in which each of a group of children accepts a role in a problem situation and proceeds to act it out, spontaneously, without rehearsal, as he thinks such a person would really act in the described situation.² However, for the average teacher, sociodrama or role playing may be described as a spontaneous play acted out under capable direction. The subject matter for each improvisation comes from some real incident or occurrence in life; each of the unrehearsed plays is followed by a discussion period.

Today educators are concerned about discovering ways of helping children develop behavior consonant with social human relations. In order

to make the democratic process practical, it must be possible to modify the child's feeling, doing, and thinking processes so that he will live well with himself and with others. The application of role playing to social situations seems almost limitless, but such expressions should not be regarded as a panacea for solving all problems.

A child who is "tied up in knots" because of unsolved emotional problems is in no condition to participate in intergroup relations. Such a child must have his own conflicts resolved first. Often the adjustment of a child in school is hindered because the family relationships are strained. Although the child may not understand why his status has become unbearable, he needs to learn to accept situations which he cannot alter and to develop a constructive attitude toward them. Sometimes the mere fact of perceiving how he sounds when he acts the way other people in the home do, may bring about changed behavior on the child's part.

If a pupil is to experience practical social learning in the classroom, emotion and intellect must be fused together. The teacher's problem is not how to repress or banish emotional expression; her problem is to utilize expressions of emotion in socially constructive ways. In school situations role playing has two important functions: (1) to promote social and emotional development, and (2) to provide vicarious experience at increasing levels of maturity.

The social contacts which children experience in school inevitably affect the adjustment they will make in later life. For example, children need to learn how it feels to be excluded in order to be able to appreciate and understand the hardships other children encounter in moving to new communities. Since many children are not able to experience such situations first hand, role playing provides the vehicle for vicarious experiences. Strang expressed this need by stating:

The sociodrama is especially effective in helping children think and feel with other persons, to put themselves

¹ J. L. Moreno. *Sociodrama*. New York: Psychodrama Monographs, 1944.

² George Shaftel and Fannie Shaftel. *Role-Playing the Problem Story*. New York: The National Conference of Christians and Jews, 1952.

The author of this discussion of the function of role playing is an Associate Professor in the Guidance Department of the University of Wyoming's College of Education in Laramie.

temporarily in someone else's place. Dramatization and role-playing are forms of "imaginative experiment." Children learn about people by trying to act as they do, just as they learn about material things by handling and using them. Role-playing gives children a chance to try on a variety of personality "masks."⁴

When a child plays roles in a situation involving prejudice and discrimination, he lives for a brief time the lives of the persons he is portraying. However, it does not follow that one sociodrama will remove prejudice from the mind of a child, but it does help to develop better understanding and healthier attitudes.

The growth of social competence comes from acquaintance with group rules of conduct and etiquette that must be gained through actual experience. The constantly expanding social world of the child brings him more and more in contact with persons to whom as an individual he means less and less. His acceptance or rejection by his peer group largely determines the kind of role he is going to play, as sociodrama influences the child's behavior (1) through the actual role he plays, and (2) through his own conception of those roles. Since the child's reaction to any situation is in the form of a role, it is not a question of whether he wants to play a role. In fact, he is playing a role at all times and in some groups he may have several roles.

Sociodrama has proved of great value in problem solving. In such a situation, the problem is presented and acted out, and the audience and actors alike attempt to find solutions. Moreno points out that ". . . the exploratory value of sociodramatic procedure is only one half of the contribution it can make, the other half and perhaps the greater half of the contribution is that it can *cure* as well as solve, that it can change attitudes, as well as study them."⁵

Moreover, role playing may be used to help solve internal problems of groups. Such matters as cliques, leadership, intrigue, jealousy, backbiting, morale, declining membership, activities and finances may be enacted under the direction of a capable group leader. Wholesome personality and group changes may be brought out through the dramatic process and through the sympathetic follow up.

In groups of adolescents, sociodrama was used to bring out adequate solutions to problems in such areas as: dating; boy-girl relationships;

shyness; manners; relationships with parents and siblings; limitations of age and physical size; and the use of telephones, television, cosmetics, money and allowances. In each case the pupils selected the topic and the situation in which it might occur, allowed several groups to portray the crisis in the state of affairs, and then discussed the satisfactory solutions.⁶

Since the ability to solve social problems is acquired, a child must learn to adapt himself to situations and to individuals with whom he comes in contact. That children are not learning to adjust socially is evident from the increase in problem children of one kind or another. Before a teacher can help a child in making a better adjustment, she must know what his needs are. In addition, she must have some technique which will reveal his attitudes and values and his degree of social maturity.

White used role playing to make the study of the legislative process more interesting and meaningful to civics students. Groundwork in action research was laid (1) by giving the students experience with simple sociodrama, and (2) by limiting the experiment to the consideration of one problem, "How a Bill Becomes a Law." In addition to learning the basic principles of political strategy, the students were able to see how the personality of Congressmen could affect legislation, and also they were brought to the realization of the importance of personal relationships in political activity.⁷

In social studies, especially, sociodrama is useful in helping pupils comprehend the emotional aspects of the problems involved in a new topic. Pupils can be given an opportunity to establish psychological connections between their own experience and the content area to be studied, thus augmenting their interest and increasing motivation. For example, Jennings cites an example of a fifth grade class that used role playing before embarking on a new unit concerned with migrations of people to America.⁸

Role playing can serve many purposes in social studies. It can become an everyday tool for stimulating, exploring and refining experience in a wide variety of situations, such as:

⁴ Morton J. Sobel. "Sociodrama in the Classroom." *Social Education*, 16:167; April 1952.

⁵ Tom Murray White. "Two Weeks in Congress: Action Research With Sociodrama in the Study of Civics." *The Social Studies*, 47:43-48; February 1956.

⁶ Helen Hall Jennings. "Sociodrama and Educative Process." *Fostering Mental Health in Our Schools*, Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1950. p. 278.

⁴ Ruth Strang. *An Introduction to Child Study*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1951.

⁵ J. L. Moreno. *op. cit.*, p. 13.

1. How it felt to have to choose sides in the American Revolution or the Civil War.
2. How it felt to have to move because your property was needed for a dam site or a war plant.
3. How it feels to be a displaced person in a new land.
4. How it feels to be a new child in school who is not accepted by the group on the playground.
5. How it feels to be a Japanese, Mexican, Indian, or Negro coming into an all white school.
6. How it feels to be the class president; to be the one defeated for office.

The science teacher recognizes that science instruction must be planned to help students to live intelligently in present day society. Munch sets up possible role playing situations in such areas as biology, general science, hygiene, chemistry, safety. Some of the sociodramatic situations he found practicable centered around (1) the mayor's concern about the high incidence of hookworm, (2) the police siren halting a boy bicyclist who has been weaving in and out of traffic, and (3) an agricultural agent explaining contour farming to an old fashioned farmer.⁸

Although only a small portion of the group play the roles before the class, it is the function of the teacher to insure that all of the pupils realize that they should try to project themselves into the roles being played.

To aid in general adjustment, role playing may be used from nursery school to adulthood. Parents and teachers can encourage and stimulate children to play a variety of roles. The child's social world may include the policeman, the taxicab driver, the banker, the railroad engineer, or the judge. His satisfaction depends largely upon the adequacy with which he is able to play different roles and their compatibility to him.

Making use of roles spontaneously may result in therapeutic values becoming evident as well as vocational guidance purposes being served. Teachers and parents might make a survey of the characteristic roles of the community for dramatization. After children have enacted assigned roles, discussion of the actor's performance in relation to the demands of the job should ensue.

Torrance feels that such a program of role playing and role training should result in: (1) broadening the vocational horizon of the elementary school child, (2) helping him to become more aware of the world about him, (3) helping him to better understand himself and his work, (4) training him to be more spontaneous and effective as an individual, and (5) providing a

⁸ Theodore W. Munch. "A Sociodramatic Slant to Science Teaching." *Science Education*, 37:318-320; December 1953.

vehicle by which vocational information may be imparted to elementary school children in a meaningful, integrated, and realistic fashion—all factors in making a wise choice.⁹

Role playing is unique in providing face-to-face communication skills. One's facial expressions, gestures, and intonation may color the words themselves and may even give them their final meaning. In acting out real or hypothetical incidents, children have the opportunity to see their own reactions objectively without danger of losing a job, a weekly allowance, or the good will of classmates or older friends.

In this spontaneous dramatization, pupils can be permitted to make a wrong choice and find out for themselves that it is not satisfactory. Since they are only practicing, they can back up on that choice when it proves inadequate or undesirable, and "try on" the responsibilities of another job.

Sociodrama is valuable as a means for discovering attitudes toward vocations. As a fact-finding device, it can reveal economic conditions of the home, the nature and extent of knowledge about community occupations, attitudes toward other individuals and groups employed at different occupational levels. For example, Florence B. Moreno used role playing to give a class of undergraduate nurses insight into community relations in which a nurse may become involved.¹⁰

Sociodrama should not be considered an educational antidote or a therapeutic magic. Strictly speaking, it is not of recent origin. Drama techniques have been used for social purposes since the beginning of man. Primitive peoples, in song, dance, speech and ritual, dramatized important occasions and so drew the group together in a common bond of socialized feeling.

Role playing is of most value when it is built about problems personal to the students, problems of general interest, and problems within the ability of the class to understand. It has proved itself a valuable supplement to older and better known teaching techniques. Role playing has great significance in fact finding, in problem solving, in improving intercultural or intergroup understanding and in improving mental health. While sociodrama is not a cure-all for the problems of individuals and groups, it is a particularly effective group work technique.

⁹ Paul Torrance. "Role Conception in a Vocational Guidance Program." *Childhood Education*, 25:413-16; May 1949.

¹⁰ Florence B. Moreno. "Sociodrama in the Sociology Classroom." *Societry*, 1:404-413; March 1948.

Notes and News

Merrill F. Hartshorn

NCSS 37th Annual Meeting

The 37th Annual Meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies will be held in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, November 27-30, 1957. The Penn-Sheraton Hotel will serve as headquarters and will house all the meetings and the exhibits of social studies teaching materials. If you wish to make hotel reservations at this time, you should write directly to the hotel and inform the reservations clerk that you plan to attend the NCSS meeting. Room reservation cards will be mailed to all NCSS members by November 1, along with the complete annual meeting program.

Although the first General Session will be held as usual at 8:00 p.m. on Thursday, November 28, there will be a number of events prior to that time of special interest to NCSS members. Those able to arrive during the first part of the week will have an opportunity to visit schools and points of historical and cultural interest in Pittsburgh. Many teachers will be interested in the urban redevelopment of Pittsburgh and the changes in the famous "Golden Triangle."

On Wednesday, November 27, the first meeting of the NCSS House of Delegates will be held. This meeting, noted elsewhere in these columns, is for the official delegates from affiliated councils.

On Thursday morning and afternoon most of the NCSS committees will be holding meetings. Some of these will be executive sessions, but most will hold open sessions for all NCSS members to attend.

The Friday morning and afternoon section meetings will focus on "Concepts and Values in the Social Studies Curriculum," with special programs for each of the various grade levels. There will also be additional section meetings on specific topics in areas such as International Relations, Conservation Education, Citizenship Education, Safety Education, and World History.

The Friday luncheon sessions will be joint meetings with the learned societies covering the various disciplines in the social sciences. Outstanding scholars in the various fields will participate in these sessions. One general session on

Friday will be devoted to the annual business meeting of the NCSS. The annual banquet meeting will be held as usual on Friday evening.

Saturday morning section meetings will include discussions on: The School in the Community; Current Research in the Social Studies; Teaching About Communism; Tests and Measurements in the Social Studies; The Junior High School Program; Social Studies in the Elementary School; Social Studies in the Junior College; American History.

The Saturday afternoon program will include the following topics: The Use of Maps and Globes; Critical Thinking in the Social Studies; Teacher Education and Certification; Child Growth and Development; English-Social Studies Correlation; Demonstration on Economic Education; Reading in the Social Studies Program; and Audio-Visual Materials in the Social Studies.

There will be breakfast meetings attended by officers and members of State and Local Councils and editors of social studies publications.

The Saturday General Session will be a luncheon meeting at which the forthcoming Yearbook will be presented and the Presidential Address will be given.

The program chairmen, Jack Allen of George Peabody College for Teachers and Howard H. Cummings of the United States Office of Education, have been working hard building the program and securing outstanding personnel. They are setting up offerings that will be practical and inspirational for all who attend the meeting. Paul Dreibelbis, Coordinator of Local Arrangements, working with co-chairmen James S. Snone and Paul Masoner, are making outstanding arrangements for your stay in Pittsburgh. You will be most welcome and will be greatly stimulated by your participation in this meeting of your professional organization.

Further details about the program and arrangements will appear in the November issue of *Social Education*. By November 1, NCSS members will receive the printed program with all reservation forms. Make plans now to attend this meeting. For further information write to Merrill

F. Hartshorn, Executive Secretary, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D. C.

House of Delegates

The inaugural session of the NCSS House of Delegates will take place in Pittsburgh at the Hotel Penn-Sheraton November 27. This important meeting marks a milestone in the growth of the National Council for the Social Studies. All councils which have received letters certifying them as eligible for representation in the first meeting of the House of Delegates are urged to have their representative present. If there are any questions about policy or procedure, do not hesitate to contact NCSS headquarters.

In order to comply with the procedure set up by the NCSS Board of Directors, each council sending a representative to the House should submit the representative's name to headquarters office prior to October 15. Delegates must be members in good standing of the National Council for the Social Studies and preferably have maintained membership for several years. For further information about the procedures in connection with the House of Delegates see the February 1957 issue of *Social Education*, pages 79-81.

27th Yearbook

All members in good standing as of the months of November 1956-March 1957 are entitled to the 27th Yearbook, *Science and the Social Studies*. This was placed in the mail early in September. If, for some reason, you failed to receive your copy, please let us know.

We want to remind all members once again that the scheduled publication date for the 28th Yearbook is March 1958. This is the new scheduled month for publication of Yearbooks as directed by the NCSS Board of Directors in Cleveland in November 1956.

Nominations for NCSS Officers for 1958

Once more it is time for the membership of the National Council for the Social Studies to be thinking about the election of officers and directors to take place in November in Pittsburgh.

The following criteria should be kept in mind for the selection of nominees:

1. Any nominee for the office of Vice-President should have served as a member of the Board of Directors for at least one year prior to his nomination.

2. No person shall be nominated for the office of Vice-President who resides in the state where the annual meeting is being held, or in any contiguous state.
3. The nominees for the office of Vice-President should have demonstrated leadership in the activities of the National Council for the Social Studies.

It has also been stated that no criteria, other than membership, should be established for positions on the Board of Directors, since this should be a testing ground for leadership.

It is requested that members of the National Council indicate to any one of the members of the Nominations Committee the names of members of the National Council who are, in their opinion, qualified to render distinguished service either as a member of the Board of Directors or as Vice-President. Be sure to include the following information about suggested nominees: (1) name and address; (2) educational position; (3) contributions to the work of NCSS and its affiliates; and (4) contributions to the field of social studies in general.

Suggestions should be made as soon as possible, certainly before the first of November. The officers to be elected at the annual meeting in Pittsburgh are President, President-Elect, Vice-President, and three members of the Board of Directors for a three-year term.

Send your nominations to any one of the following members of the Nominations Committee: Ethel Ray, 28 South 20 Street, Terre Haute, Indiana; Julian C. Aldrich, School of Education, New York University; Julia Emery, Wichita High School East, Wichita, Kansas; Lavone A. Hanna, San Francisco State College, San Francisco, California; William D. Metz, University of Rhode Island, Kingston, Rhode Island; or Myrtle Roberts, Woodrow Wilson High School, Dallas 14, Texas.

Student Members of NCSS

Interesting prospective teachers in the advantages of NCSS membership is one of the most valuable services college instructors can perform for their students. Herein lies one of our biggest sources of potential growth as a Council.

Many instructors across the country are doing yeoman service in this way. They receive very little recognition for it. These paragraphs are by way of showing the National Council's appreciation for their efforts.

Students comprise more than 11 percent of

our membership. The 17 states with 10 or more student members (as of July 30, 1957) are:

New York	111	Colorado	25
California	106	Kansas	21
Louisiana	70	Texas	19
Ohio	52	Iowa	18
Florida	42	Pennsylvania	18
Michigan	41	Indiana	14
Tennessee	34	Maryland	12
Minnesota	33	Illinois	10
Massachusetts	28		

Ruth Gavian and Leonard Kenworthy at Brooklyn College account for about half of New York's total. Other leaders are Alice Spieseke at Columbia, Ralph Brown at Cortland, Julian Aldrich at NYU, and Erling Hunt and Louis Vanaria at Columbia.

Dick Gross leads the parade in California, continuing the good work he started in Florida. Max Klingbeil has been the moving force in the founding of a student social studies council in Los Angeles State College, which has 20 NCSS members. Morris Lewenstein of San Francisco State College, Olive Stewart at the University of California, and Carol J. Smallenburg of Los Angeles State College are among the other leaders in California.

Rodney Higgins of Southern University has enrolled countless students in NCSS and accounts for about 90 percent of Louisiana's fine showing. Another good worker is Watt Black of LSU. Ross Coxe of Wayne State University heads the leaders in Michigan, followed closely by Stanley Dimond, a past President of the NCSS, at the University of Michigan.

Stanley Wronski did a good job in Massachusetts while he was at Boston University. Edith West at the University of Minnesota is responsible for most of Minnesota's student members.

Tennessee's top NCSS "salesmen" are Jack Allen, our President-Elect, of George Peabody College for Teachers, and A. M. Johnston at the University of Tennessee. William C. Lang, head of the Department of Social Science at Iowa State Teachers College and his colleagues, account for almost all of Iowa's 18 student members.

Instrumental in Illinois' student recruitment are John J. Twombly at Northern Illinois State College, Harriet Stull at Western Illinois State College, and Henrietta Fernitz at Chicago Teachers College.

Myrtle Roberts, former NCSS President, tops Texas' list of recruiters. Ed Carr, another former President, is doing a good job in Colorado. Dick

Skretting, former chairman of CPR, leads the way in Florida, and Alvin H. Schild of the University of Kansas accounts for his state's total.

The National Council pays tribute to these and all other instructors who are getting their students off to a good professional start. J.G.K.

1958 Annual Meeting

The Executive Committee and the Board of Directors take pleasure in announcing that the 1958 Annual Meeting will be held at the Sheraton Palace Hotel in San Francisco, November 27-29. There is enthusiastic support on the whole West Coast for this meeting, and we are looking forward to a gala affair.

Fulbright and Buenos Aires Convention Scholarships

Competitions for Fulbright and Buenos Aires Convention Scholarships for graduate study abroad for 1958-59 close November 1, 1957. Requests for application forms must bear a postmark not later than October 25.

The Fulbright awards for pre-doctoral study and research in Europe, Asia, and Latin America cover tuition, books, and maintenance for one academic year. The Buenos Aires Convention scholarships for use in Latin America provide transportation from the United States government and maintenance from the government of the host country.

Eligibility requirements for these foreign study fellowships are United States citizenship, a college degree or its equivalent by the time the award will be used, knowledge of the language of the country of application sufficient to carry on the proposed study, and good health. Preference is given to applicants not more than 35 years of age.

Persons interested in these awards can receive further information by writing to the Institute of International Education, 1 East 67th Street, New York 21, New York, for the brochure, "United States Government Grants."

Announcement of Foreign Area Training Fellowships

The Ford Foundation is offering a limited number of fellowships for the academic year 1958-59 for graduate training in the social sciences, including law, and the humanities relating to Asia and the Near East, to the Soviet Union and Eastern Europe, or to Africa (South

of the Sahara). The deadline for filing applications is November 1, 1957.

The fellowship, usually for one year, carries a stipend sufficient for the ordinary living expenses of the Fellow and his dependents, and an additional amount for tuition and necessary transportation costs. In exceptional cases, consideration may also be given to requests to cover certain other expenses which may be necessary to carry out the training program.

Grants will be made primarily on the basis of the quality and promise of the individual applicant. The fellowships are available to United States and Canadian citizens, and to persons residing permanently in the United States who can give substantial evidence of their intention to become citizens. Applicants should not ordinarily be over 35 years of age. Previous training relating to the foreign area of interest is not required.

For further information, write to The Secretary, The Ford Foundation, Foreign Area Training Fellowships, 477 Madison Avenue (15th floor), New York 22, New York.

New York

The Annual Winter Meeting of the New York State Council for the Social Studies was held in cooperation with the Capital District Council and the Adirondack-Champlain Council in Albany, on February 22-23. "How-To-Do-It" section meetings were the first order of business after registration and tours of historical and cultural sites in and near Albany. The section meetings dealt with techniques and materials in Citizenship Education at the elementary, junior and senior high school levels. The evening general meeting featured Henry S. Commager of Amherst College in a talk, "Nationalism and the Community of Learning." The Saturday morning general meeting concerned itself with the topic, "New York State Government, Services and Costs." Saturday afternoon section meetings were devoted to discussions of the teaching of government, history (American and world), and geography.

General program chairman was Frederick Stutz of Cornell University; assisted by Mrs. Mary Salisbury, Delmar; E. Helen Gardner, East Greenbush; and Henry J. Brezinski, Salem. A feature of the meeting was an exhibit of educational materials.

Officers elected at this meeting to serve for one year include Frederick Stutz, Cornell University, President; Ruth E. Pitt, Buffalo, First Vice-President; Myrtle Larkin, Rexford, Second

Vice-President; and Gerald W. Snyder, re-elected Secretary-Treasurer.

G.W.S.

South Carolina

The annual meeting of the South Carolina Council for the Social Studies was held at Columbia, March 29. The theme of this meeting, held in conjunction with the annual convention of the South Carolina Education Association, was "Challenge to the Teachers of Social Studies."

Highlights of the meeting included a luncheon address by the President, Charles H. Thomas; a report on the NCSS 36th Annual Convention in Cleveland, Ohio; and a business meeting.

Officers elected were Mrs. Dorothy Lupold, Columbia, President; Jack B. McDuffie, Darlington, Vice-President; and Mrs. Eliza H. Stone, Columbia, Secretary-Treasurer. Executive Committee members are Miss Ruth Boyd, Mrs. Dorothy Lupold, Lewis R. Kirk, and Charles H. Thomas.

C.H.T.

New Jersey

The New Jersey Council for the Social Studies has arranged a meeting November 7 and 8 at the Hotel Chelsea in Atlantic City during the November convention of the New Jersey Education Association. Co-chairmen of the program committee are Joseph Passarella of Plainfield and William Biesiadecki of East Orange High School. Elizabeth Huntington of Connecticut Farms School in Union, Betty Barton of South Orange-Maplewood, and David Weingast of Newark are the committee members.

The program for Thursday afternoon will deal with "Exploring Core Programs for the Junior High School." Friday morning the Rutgers Institute of Management and Labor Relations, under the direction of their own George Tapper, is sponsoring an institute with sections on "Settling Labor-Management Disputes," "Labor and Management Look Ahead" and presentations of classroom tested films.

M. A.

All social studies teachers and social studies organizations are cordially invited to send in material for these columns. Send in notes to come on the activities of your school or organization and other items of general interest to social studies teachers. Mail your material as early as possible to Merrill F. Hartshorn, Executive Secretary, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C. Contributors to this issue: James G. Kehew, Gerald W. Snyder, Charles H. Thomas, and Maud Austin.

Pamphlets and Government Publications

Manson Van B. Jennings

World Affairs

The United States and the Far East (The American Assembly, Columbia University, New York 27: 226 p. \$1) contains the background papers prepared for use of the participants of the tenth American Assembly at Arden House in November 1956. After an introduction by Willard Thorp on the significance of the Far East, separate chapters deal with the United States as related to Japan, Korea, Communist China, and Taiwan. Each of these sections gives attention to historical backgrounds, to military and economic developments in these countries, and to United States foreign policy, including an analysis of possible courses of action. Containing helpful maps, these background papers can well serve both American and world history teachers.

"Latin America, the southern citadel of our hemispheric defense, is again the target of an offensive on the part of international communism. In keeping with the 'new look' in Soviet tactics, smiles and promises have taken the place of threats, although flagrant subversion, espionage, and agitation continue." These words introduce *Guatemala: A Case History of Communist Penetration* (U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25: 71 p. 30 cents). Although the initial effort to extend Communist colonialism to Guatemala has failed, this case study illustrates the techniques employed and how both the Communists and others have learned from past mistakes in this Latin American country.

Under the direction of Leonard S. Kenworthy, World Affairs Materials (Brooklyn College, Brooklyn 10) makes available a great deal of mimeographed material that should prove helpful to social studies teachers at all levels of instruction. At the secondary level, resource units on China (40 cents), India (40 cents), Japan (50 cents), the Middle East (30 cents), and Southeast Asia (30 cents) provide basic background information, bibliographies of teaching materials, suggestions for teaching procedures, and possible

evaluative procedures. Upon request, Kenworthy will send a full list of all World Affairs Materials, a list that includes other titles for use in secondary school social studies, as well as titles for the elementary level.

Vocational Information

The Bureau of Labor Statistics of the U.S. Department of Labor (Washington 25) publishes a considerable amount of vocational guidance material, much of which is useful to social studies teachers. Free items may be obtained by writing directly to the Bureau of Labor Statistics; others may be purchased from the U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25.

Periodically the Bureau of Labor Statistics provides a revised free list of Occupational Outlook Publications. Cited in this list are the Employment Outlook Bulletins, ranging from 15 to 40 cents in price. Also cited is the new quarterly, *The Occupational Outlook*, which costs 30 cents a copy or \$1 for an annual subscription. This new periodical will channel to the vocational guidance profession current information available through the continuing research program of the Bureau of Labor Statistics in the occupational outlook field. It will also report on studies and projects of special interest that are not generally available to guidance personnel.

Upon request, the Bureau of Labor Statistics will place upon its mailing list the names of those who wish to receive free bulletins that will keep teachers and guidance personnel in touch with the latest developments in the field of employment trends and occupations, and who wish to receive announcements of new publications and free summaries of new occupational outlook reports, some of which are accompanied by a wall chart. Over two dozen such summaries are currently available without charge, and are listed in the Occupational Outlook Publications leaflet cited above.

Occupational Information for Counselors: An Annotated Bibliography (16 p. 15 cents) lists

approximately 130 publications prepared by the Department of Labor; these include titles giving general occupational and industrial information, and materials on specific occupations and industries, manpower studies, career and employment planning, counseling and related techniques.

The Women's Bureau of the Department of Labor also makes a substantial contribution to the pamphlet materials available in this field. Among their publications are the following: *Employment Opportunities for Women Mathematicians and Statisticians* (37 p. 25 cents); *Job-Finding Techniques for the College Woman* (9 p. 10 cents); *Job Horizons for the College Woman* (53 p. 25 cents); and *Handbook for Women Workers* (96 p. 35 cents), a largely factual presentation on the employment of women, their earnings and income, their education and vocational training, state laws relating to women workers, and the political and civil status of women.

Vocational guidance materials are often available from specific industries and trade organizations. Typical of these is *Your Opportunities in Industry as a Skilled Craftsman* (National Association of Manufacturers, 2 East 48th St., New York 17: 31 p. free). This pamphlet stresses the key role of the skilled craftsman as the "anchor man" on industry's technological team, and covers the scope, content and importance of apprentice training. Also free from the NAM is *Your Opportunities in Industry as a Technician* (31 p.).

Colonial America

Every school child probably knows of Washington's home at Mount Vernon; few, however, have even heard of his birthplace. *George Washington Birthplace National Monument* (U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25: 44 p. 25 cents) is one of a series of handbooks describing the historical and archeological areas in the national Park System administered by the National Park Service of the Department of the Interior. Like other pamphlets in this series, this one on Washington's birthplace is well written, providing historical information, the reproduction of primary source documents, illustrations of authentic relics, and a description of this particular National Monument as it is viewed today by tourist and scholar. The other pamphlets in this series are listed on the back cover and range in price from 20 to 35 cents.

This past summer's attention to the Williamsburg area of Virginia has led the National Park Service to revise one of its older pamphlets in

the Historical Handbook Series and to publish a new one. *Yorktown and the Siege of 1781* (60 p. 25 cents) was originally published in 1954, but has been carefully revised. *Jamestown, Virginia, the Townsite and Its Story* (54 p. 25 cents) is a new pamphlet that incorporates the many changes in the site that have been made during the past year. Another pamphlet, *New Discoveries at Jamestown* (99 p. 50 cents) provides still more on colonial Jamestown, as does the source book, *James Towne in the Words of Contemporaries* (20 cents), both of which titles were published by the National Park Service. All of these titles can be purchased from the U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25.

Free Materials

Allen O. Felix, formerly with the Citizenship Education Project at Teachers College, Columbia University, is now Director of Education of the New York Stock Exchange (11 Wall St., New York 5). He will be pleased to offer assistance to any students interested in the study of our modern business corporations and the New York Stock Exchange. Upon request, he will send free materials on these subjects, including copies of "You and the Investment World," a new series of leaflets recently published by the Stock Exchange and designed for the high school students. These leaflets provide basic exposition, graphs, photographs, and a variety of learning activities. The leaflets in this series that have been published thus far are: *Types of Business Organizations*, *The American Corporation*, *Stocks: Common and Preferred*, and *Bonds: Government, Municipal and Corporate*. Others are in preparation and may be available by the time this appears in print.

Ancient civilizations flourished with no sources of power other than muscle, wind and water. Our present civilization, however, is dependent upon a new technology that is based on a new source of power developed within the past 250 years: combustion. While the power contained in coal and oil has made our present industrial civilization possible, our supply of these fuels is limited, and the future may have to rely upon other sources of power: the energy derived from the sun's rays and the power that lies locked within the atom itself. The story of the development of all these sources of power is dramatically told in *The Story of Power* (Educational Relations Section, General Motors Corporation, P.O. Box 177, North End Station, Detroit 2: 51 p. free).

Sight and Sound in Social Studies

William H. Hartley

Film of the Month

Helen Keller In Her Story. 45 minutes; rental, \$12.50. Louis de Rochemont Associates Film Library, 13 East 37th Street, New York.

This is the true-life story of one of America's truly great women. Narrated by Katharine Cornell, it is a simple, honest, tremendously moving film. Helen Keller, playing her own role, evokes the personal drama of her unique and dramatic story of remarkable courage, faith, perseverance and hope.

The film opens with a visit to Miss Keller in her home where she is celebrating her 76th year. Through the use of newsreel shots, the astonishing career of Helen Keller is traced from birth to the present time. It shows in dramatic detail how the blind, deaf and mute woman overcame seemingly insuperable handicaps to become one of the great world figures.

Perhaps nothing better illustrates the power and eloquence of this remarkable film than one passage, haltingly spoken by Miss Keller in her partially developed voice. She says: "It is not blindness or deafness that brings me my darkest hours. It is the acute disappointment of not being able to speak normally. Longingly I feel how much more good I could have done if I had acquired normal speech. But out of this dark experience I understand more fully all human strivings, thwarted ambitions and the infinite capacity of hope."

The sequence which shows Miss Keller learning to speak and write will be an inspiration to all teachers and pupils. The patience, courage, and imagination of her teacher for fifty years, Anne Sullivan, is matched by the determination of the pupil. We follow the course of instruction until we see the young girl learn to speak, write, type, dance, ride horseback, take her first plane trip, and generally become a well-adjusted person.

The film follows Helen Keller in her many activities. As an actress in Hollywood films, as a world traveler, author, and lecturer. Throughout there is a message of hope, and as the film ends, the narrator sets the mood by saying, "This, then, is the message we give you—God is light and in Him is no darkness at all."

Motion Pictures

Audio-Visual Services, Department of Cinema, 3518 University Avenue, Los Angeles 7, California.

Planning the Museum Trip. 9 minutes; rental, \$1.50. Produced by the University of Southern California, this film shows how to relate the trip to the unit of study, how to organize class committees, and how to conduct and make use of the learnings on such a trip.

Contemporary Films, 13 East 37th Street, New York 16.

A City Decides. 27 minutes; rental, \$7.50. The true story of integration in a public school in St. Louis. It revolves around a teacher who was directly faced with a "racial incident" in his class at Beaumont High School shortly after integration took place. *A City Decides* shows how the Board of Education of St. Louis, helped by many citizens and local organizations and working from the precedent established by the private and parochial schools of the city, carried out a policy of integration firmly and wisely. *A City Decides* does not say what other communities should do. It shows only what one community did. It does suggest that the answers to the problem of integration can be found.

Coronet Films, Coronet Building, Chicago 1.

Early American Civilizations. 13 minutes; black-and-white or color; sale, apply. The cultural remains of the Mayans, Aztecs, and Incas, filmed at the original sites, attest to the highly developed civilizations of the Indians of early America. The contributions of these cultures to our own are clearly evidenced.

Life of a Primitive People (Africa). 13 minutes; black-and-white or color; sale, apply. The simple way of life of a primitive people of Africa today parallels that of man in prehistoric times. Excellent camera work with an actual tribe shows a pattern of life that includes hunting for food, using fire, and adapting available materials to make clothing, shelter, utensils, and weapons.

The Truck Farm. 11 minutes; black-and-white or color; sale, apply. Bill and Cathy live with their parents on the family's truck farm. When not in school, the children help with the planting, harvesting, and many other jobs. Work that is done on the truck farm, what the farm produces, and where its products go are among the many things children will see as they learn about the life on a truck farm.

Australia: The Land and the People. 16 minutes; sale: black-and-white, \$82.50; color, \$150. Shows the continent's climate and major economic activities in relation to Australia's position as "the land down under" and its huge size and small population. The film also stresses the British heritage of the English-speaking Australians.

Fossils: Clues to Prehistoric Times. 11 minutes; sale: black-and-white, \$55; color, \$100. The exciting story of fossils, where they are found, how they are formed, and what they tell us about the development of life on earth.

Rothacher, Inc. 729 Seventh Avenue, New York 19.

Mining for Nickel. 45 minutes; color; free loan. The complete story of nickel mining gives a color picture of the complicated underground workings of a great mining operation.

Young America Films, Inc., 18 East 41st Street, New York 17.

Arab Village. 10 minutes; sale, \$50. A documentary story of life in Merj, a small rural village in Lebanon, telling how the villagers cooperate to bring irrigation and medical service to the village.

Irrigation. 15 minutes; sale, \$75. Explain what irrigation is, how it is accomplished in America's Southwest, and what it means to the land and those who farm it.

The Age of Discovery. 15 minutes; sale: black-and-white, \$75; color, \$150. An all-animation film explaining the cause-and-effect relationship of events of the late fifteenth century as they led to the discovery of the New World.

Filmstrips

Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc., 1150 Wilmette Ave., Wilmette, Illinois.

The Arctic Wilderness. A series of six filmstrips in color based on the Walt Disney motion picture of the same title. Price for the series of six is \$36, or \$6 each. Separate titles are: "The Northland," "Rodents of the Northland," "Marine Mammals of the Northland," "Arctic Foxes and Wolves," "Wolverines and Weasels of the Northland," and "Birds of the Northland."

Teachers Library, Inc., 1790 Broadway, New York 19.

An Introduction to Rubber. Free. The stories of natural and synthetic rubber, the forms and uses of rubber, the place of rubber in our daily life, and facts about the rubber industry in the United States. Sponsored by the United States Rubber Company, this filmstrip is given to schools free of charge.

Visual Education Consultants, Inc., 2066 Helena St., Madison 4, Wisconsin.

Detroit. Sale, \$3.50. Tells the story of the early settlement of Detroit, the importance of its location on the Great Lakes, the development of the automobile industry, and the rise of the third largest manufacturing center in the United States.

Yugoslavia. Sale, \$3.50. Historical survey, from the days of Roman rule to its present status as a Communist nation. Resources, agriculture, people, topography, industry are discussed and illustrated.

Early Explorers and Settlers in America. Sale, \$3.50. Discusses the discovery of the New World, beginning with the Vikings. It follows the adventures of Columbus. Also shows the early settlements at Jamestown and Plymouth.

Story of Slavery in the United States. Sale, \$3.50. Dis-

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cusses the introduction of slavery into America in 1617. Shows how the cotton industry influenced its growth. Deals with the Missouri Compromise, Fugitive Slave Law, underground railway, secession, Emancipation Proclamation, and a brief review of the Civil War.

Alaska Today. Sale, \$3.50. Tells of Alaska from the early days to its present relationship as a Territory of the United States. Climate, natural resources, education, industry and people are also discussed.

Let's Take a Field Trip to Milwaukee. Sale, \$3.50. Shows government, schools, universities, industries, port facilities, and recreational facilities.

Educational Television

"Establishing an educational television station requires lots of work, but it can be done," so states the Educational Television and Radio Center which services ETV stations. Already 26 cities are served by ETV stations. The work of setting up such a station is made easier because three national organizations are eager to help. The first is the Joint Council on Educational Television, 1785 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington 6, D.C. This group will assist with every stage of establishing a station as well as in dealing with the Federal Communications Commission.

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The second organization available to help you is the Educational Television and Radio Center, Washtenaw Avenue, Ann Arbor, Michigan. It will help you to stir up enthusiasm for educational television in your community by providing promotional literature and films of excerpts from typical educational television programs. After you are on the air, the Center will supply your station with National Educational Television network programs.

Finally, help comes to the new ETV station from the National Association of Educational Broadcasters. This organization will give you counsel on technical, legal, and staff problems. Their address is 14 Gregory Hall, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois.

Maps and Globes

A new, low-price globe suitable for elementary grades has been announced by the Denoyer-Geppert Company (5235 Ravenswood Avenue, Chicago 40). Called the "Econocraft Basic Globe," single colors are used for land areas, yellow with brown hill shading. All water areas are a single shade of blue. Place names have been reduced to those necessary to acquire a basic understanding

of the fundamentals of geography, the location of political units and the larger more significant physical and cultural features of the world. This 12-inch globe costs anywhere from \$14.80 to \$21, with the difference depending upon the type of mounting chosen.

A series of "Earth Curved Relief Maps" in the form of plaques are being well received in a number of schools. Distributed by the Stanley Bowmer Company (Valhalla, N.Y.) these 23-inch diameter plastic maps weighing but 14 ounces give an undistorted view of geographical areas in their correct relationship to each other. The high relief enables pupils to see and feel the mountains, lakes, rivers and islands. Seven maps are available including North America, South America, Asia, Africa, Australia, Europe, and a North Polar Projection. The maps cost \$9.95 each or \$63 for the set of seven.

Of All Things

If you are looking for a good program for a teachers' meeting, social studies workshop, or an in-service training class, consider the Denoyer-Geppert Company's (5235 Ravenswood Ave., Chicago 40) filmstrip, "Starting With the Globe." This full-color strip explains why globes are used in the classroom, outlines step-by-step procedures for introducing ideas for the use of the Globe in teaching history and geography. "Starting With the Globe" is available for free loan from the above address.

The Department of Audio-Visual Instruction, National Education Association (1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C.) has published a second edition of its *National Tape Recording Catalog*. This catalog contains information on over 1000 selected educational tape programs available to schools. To get a tape recorded program one simply sends a blank tape to Kent State University with the title and code number of each program desired. There is a service charge of 50 cents for 15 minutes of program material, and \$1 for a program running from 16 to 30 minutes. The catalog listing the available programs sells for \$1.

Helpful Articles

Finn, J. D. "Automation and Education: General Aspects." *Audio-Visual Communication Review* 5:313-360; winter, 1957. Automation is described and the effect upon education is considered.

Robertis, A. B. and Bloss, E. L. "The Field Trip and the Curriculum." *Audio-Visual Instruction* 2:68-71, March 1957. A guide to better field trips integrated into the curriculum.

Notes on Books

Focus: Government

Edward T. Ladd

A Book for the Department Library

CONGRESSIONAL GOVERNMENT: A STUDY IN AMERICAN POLITICS. By Woodrow Wilson. New York: Meridian Books, 1956. 222 p. \$1.25.

Although written almost 75 years ago, *Congressional Government* is still worth the time of busy teachers of American government. Not, to be sure, as what its author intended it to be—a realistic analysis of the way in which our national government actually works. For in 1884, seeking to put the central actuality of our government in a single phrase, Wilson described it as "a government by the chairmen of the Standing Committees of Congress" (p. 82). Then why read such a "dated" work?

Walter Lippmann answers as follows: "With the fresh eye of genius and with the intuitions of a man who is born to govern, he described the breakdown of government in the aftermath of the Civil War. The book deals with the American system in the 20 dangerous and humiliating years between the death of Lincoln and the rise of Grover Cleveland. It is the first analytical description of what happens when the President is weak and helpless, of how power and responsibility disintegrate when members of Congress, and more specifically their standing committees are predominant. Some of the factual details are no longer correct. But the morbid symptoms which he identified are still clearly recognizable when the disease recurs, and there is a relapse into Congressional supremacy. This was a good book to read during the Harding Administration. It is a good book to have read at the end of the Truman and at the beginning of the Eisenhower Administrations. . . ."

In all fairness it must be pointed out that Wilson soon saw the "dated" character of his work and made that clear in his preface to the fifteenth printing in 1900 and in his later work, *Constitutional Government*, in 1908. In the latter he saw what the office of the Presidency could be when held by such a man as he was himself. As Mr. Lippmann so well says: "There exists, one might say in Limbo, a third book describing

the American system in its ups and in its downs. That book, alas, Woodrow Wilson was never allowed to write. But in that book he could have brought together into one field of theory the truth of his *Congressional Government* and the truth of his *Constitutional Government*."

The reader today will have to supplement by reading more recent studies, without neglecting the classics, such as *The Federalist* and Tocqueville's *Democracy in America*. But in *Congressional Government* he will find reason to refrain from joining in recent hysterical outbursts against the Supreme Court in the name of "democracy" and "majority rule," and to thank God that the Fathers did seek a government of limits and of balance, and gave us the framework within which it might be achieved.

ROBERT E. KEOHANE

Department of Social Sciences
Shimer College

Books to Use in Teaching

AMERICAN GOVERNMENT IN TODAY'S WORLD. By Robert Rienow. Boston: D.C. Heath & Company, 1956. 751 p. \$4.20.

Professor Rienow, a former high school teacher, presents to high school students the processes of American government on the national, state, and local level. Students of the eleventh and twelfth years are introduced to essential facts in a logical presentation woven around the eight units of the book's 38 chapters. The major portion of the text relates itself to the history, organization and functioning of the national government. Authoritative facts from the constitutional setting, the powers of the federal and state governments, the roles of the President, Congress, the Judiciary, and the services and administration of the national, state, county, city, and village are emphasized.

The book is replete with such aids to learning and teaching as graphs, charts, and pictures. For each unit there is an introduction, a presentation of the subject matter in easily-read single-



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column type and a follow-through section consisting of new words, quick quiz points to ponder, and suggested individual and committee activities. The appendix contains the Declaration of Independence, the Constitution, and for each chapter selected readings from pertinent books, pamphlets, and periodicals. The index is adequate. Professor Rienow presents American government in world prospective against a background of the United Nations, Truman Doctrine, N.A.T.O., and Point Four.

The reviewer would like to have found a fuller treatment of the Supreme Court decisions, segregation and other domestic government problems, to balance the emphasis on "the world we live in." Color in the pictures and charts together with provocative questions, instead of expository captions, would add to their value.

This is a sound textbook that can be heartily recommended for either a single- or a two-semester course in American government or as an adjunct to an American history course.

LEONARD W. INGRAHAM

George W. Wingate High School
Brooklyn, New York

OUR AMERICAN GOVERNMENT. By Stanley E. Dimond and Elmer F. Pflieger. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1957. 608 p. \$4.20.

Stanley E. Dimond, Professor of Education at the University of Michigan, and Elmer F. Pflieger, Supervisor of Social Studies in Detroit, have collaborated to produce a new textbook for high school government classes. The format is attractive, the vocabulary is within the range of average readers, and the illustrations are appropriate and current.

The book is organized into seven units with thirty chapters. The basic philosophical assumptions of American political institutions and a description of American politics are presented in the opening unit. The functional and structural organization of national, state, and local governments are treated in separate units. Taxation and finance are covered in a two-chapter unit. The last two units deal with the role of government in world affairs and in four selected aspects of American domestic life.

Each unit is prefaced with "A Glimpse Ahead," spotlighting some of the significant ideas to anticipate in subsequent chapters, and "A Look Back," which reviews the important ideas of

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those preceding. Each chapter is introduced by an interest-provoking incident and concludes with a summary, study questions, a word and phrase list, a bibliography, and suggested activities.

The rather serious shortcoming of this good textbook, one common to most efforts to write accurate, informative material for high school pupils, is overgeneralization. These authors recognize this fact but insist that its merits outweigh its considerable disadvantages on the basis that generalizations endure when facts may soon be forgotten. However true this is, a crucial point in the teaching of government to young people persists: generalizations accepted without adequate factual basis and analysis tend either to be inaccurate and misconceived or to be held dogmatically without intelligent justification. This danger may well be more apparent than real, although the era of McCarthyism at home and the subversion of democracy in other lands is too recent to let the matter rest without rigorous soul-searching and effective action by teachers of social studies. This book abounds in a great number of facts and well-explained concepts. The authors wisely encourage the extensive use of up-to-date supplementary material and the involvement of young people in direct experiences from which adequate understandings may be nurtured.

Many teachers and pupils will enjoy using this book. Teachers selecting a new government text will surely want to examine it.

O. L. DAVIS, JR.

Peabody Demonstration School
George Peabody College for Teachers

On the Intellectual Frontier

ESSAYS IN CONSTITUTIONAL LAW. Edited by Robert G. McCloskey. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1957. 429 p. \$5.75.

In this volume are some well-reasoned essays on the interpretation of the Constitution. These commentaries, written over a period of the last 64 years, weigh the relative judicial values considered by the Supreme Court through the years. It is a tribute to McCloskey's selections, as well as to his own illuminating and provocative preface to each essay, that this book should constitute a part of today's homework for anyone attempting to assess the Constitution and the role of the Court in the mid-twentieth century. Everyone from critic to supporter of the Court who studies these essays in a reflective mood is likely to have his views tempered by the thinking of these essayists and the editor.

McCloskey, an associate professor of government at Harvard, feels that we lack in our time

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an affirmative theory about the place of the Constitution and the Supreme Court in our industrial society. "One looks in vain for a reasoned theory of the Court's place in American democracy, a theory on whose basis the new call for judicial action might be justified. . . . [Meanwhile] There will always be those who like the Court when it agrees with them and vilify it when it does not, or who think of the Constitution as the Ark of the Covenant when it defends their interest and an abomination when it allows their interests to be thwarted."

In a general section on the nature and development of American Constitutionalism, he traces through his essayists the development of the ideas of judicial review from the "intent of the framers" to its application in our twentieth century industrial society. McCloskey adds his own pithy commentary to those of the essayists. "If judicial review as we know it in America can be justified at all, it must be justified as an attempt by men to think coherently about the ordering of human affairs, and the first requirement for coherency is that we rid ourselves of delusions. . . . Writers on constitutional law never tire of admonishing their readers to beware of the delusion that constitutional questions are

a judicial monopoly; yet the delusions endure the onslaughts of scholarship and common sense with the usual pertinacity of folklore."

The greater portion of the book is devoted to interpretive essays on the "modern constitution." The power of the President, freedom of speech, separation of church and state, the constitution and racial equality, criminal procedure and judicial control, modern federalism, international agreements and constitutional amendments, and the modern court and economic legislation are subjects encompassed by the essays.

Consideration of these enumerated subjects is necessary intellectual baggage for an intelligent journey through the recent decisions of the Court. Many of the essayists (Corwin, Thayer, Powell, Beard, Chafee, and Judge Hand among others) are known as outstanding students of the Constitution and the judicial process.

Social scientists interested in the role of law will want to read at least McCloskey's commentaries and most of the essays. This volume would be a valuable addition to the reference shelf for college students exploring this field.

JAY A. HIGBEE

Humanistic Social Department
College of Engineering
University of Washington

Other Books to Know About

THE HOOVER REPORT 1953-1955: WHAT IT MEANS TO YOU AS A CITIZEN AND TAXPAYER. By Neil MacNeil and Harold W. Metz. New York: Macmillan Company, 1956. 344 p. \$6.00.

In his introduction to this enticing survey of our federal government and the Hoover Commission's views on improving its efficiency, Herbert Hoover states that "To write a readable and interesting book on the extraordinarily complicated problems of reorganization of some 1,900 Federal Government agencies is an accomplishment in itself."

Indeed it was. These authors, one for many years a top editor of *The New York Times* and the other an authority on the Federal Government who has made several studies for the Brookings Institution, have made the material almost exciting writing. Even if one were to eliminate all references to the Hoover Commission, this book would be more than worthwhile reading for its concise, readable guide to government. Again to quote Mr. Hoover, "One of the important purposes of the Commission was to open the doors of understanding of the functions of

our government to our people at large. They are a lesson on civil government of significant educational value. And this book is a condensation of those lessons and the arguments over them." Teachers interested in any phase of American government will find in this volume current, vital facts with which to spice their classroom discussions. A few items selected almost at random will illustrate the point:

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More advanced students will find this book a most valuable source of information and a basis for the development of many papers and arguments. They will also find here increased understanding of the problems of big government and of the opportunities for employment therein.

ROBERT BAYLESS NORRIS

Central Bucks Joint Schools
Doylestown, Pennsylvania

●

BEHIND THE PRESIDENT: A STUDY OF EXECUTIVE OFFICE AGENCIES. By Edward H. Hobbs, Washington: Public Affairs Press, 1954. 248 p. \$4.50.

Although much information concerning the several agencies grouped within the Executive Office of the President is of course neatly accessible in the *United States Government Organization Manual*, Professor Hobbs, in this book, obligingly gets behind the descriptions of structure and simple listings of function into the actual workings of these agencies. He relates their respective histories in terms of men and ideas responsible for their creation and development. In so doing the President, the man, is properly placed in

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relation to that almost mystical entity we know today as the Presidency, thereby underscoring the compelling fact that staffing the Presidency involves much more than merely electing a President.

Essentially, *Behind the President* is about governmental administration with particular focus upon that machinery and those people who play a special role in helping the person who is President give direction to and provide unity for the Presidency. As such it would seem to be primarily for the political scientist with an expert's interest in administration, yet it merits a much wider reading public. The book has real value as a ready reference because it brings together well-documented material, a good deal of it from sources not easily available, and offers in addition much thoughtful comment and interpretation.

As public comprehension of the complex nature of the executive headship of our national government deepens, perhaps the men who become President will be held by the American people to a more reasonable accountability of their stewardship. A President has to work so hard these days, often at relatively minor chores, that it is nice to be reminded by Professor Hobbs

in this important study that he is in many respects no longer so entirely on his own; and that continuing administrative experiment seems to offer a fair chance that eventually the job will be cut down to something more closely approximating humanly possible proportions.

Mr. Hobbs is Associate Professor of Political Science at the University of Mississippi.

CARL PETTERSON

Department of Political Science
Danbury (Conn.) State Teachers College

THE CHALLENGE OF MAN'S FUTURE: AN INQUIRY CONCERNING THE CONDITION OF MAN DURING THE YEARS THAT LIE AHEAD. By Harrison Brown. New York: The Viking Press, 1954. 290 p. \$1.75 (paper); \$3.75 (cloth).

TOMORROW'S BIRTHRIGHT: A POLITICAL AND ECONOMIC INTERPRETATION OF OUR NATURAL RESOURCES. By Barrow Lyons. New York: Funk and Wagnalls Company, 1955. 424 p. \$5.00.

The relationship between human population, technology, and natural resources, and their impact on material welfare and type of society are a fascinating and fundamental subject, hard to

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comprehend, and harder to report on. These two books represent vastly different approaches to this task, with strikingly different results.

Harrison Brown, a trained physical scientist now at the California Institute of Technology, will be remembered as the author of *Shall Destruction Be Our Destiny?*, in which he demonstrated his concern for democratic and humanistic values. Dr. Brown takes the world and man's history since antiquity as the scope of his study. After briefly defining the Malthusian problem in its modern context, he relates critical population and resource developments to differing historical and social situations in a most provocative fashion. However, the major and most valuable portion of the book is devoted to an analysis of the current status and future possibilities of the primary resource factors. The author's achievement in isolating, relating and reporting the fundamentals in concise form is something of a tour de force. His conclusions are calm and profoundly pessimistic for the future of humanistic and democratic values.

Brown relies on a cyclical theory of history combined with Darwinian survival-of-the-fittest premises when discussing the evolution of cultures, and many will dispute the merits of this

In his concluding discussion of social consequences, he builds on a series of propositions that have as yet to be clearly demonstrated (for example, that the co-existence of agrarian and industrial societies is unstable, and that one of the two *must* become like the other). Last, he seems to underemphasize the role of technology in increasing productivity and thereby reducing the costs of acquiring resources, often an obstacle when resources are scarce because of the expense of exploitation. I state these reservations because, in sum, this lucidly and beautifully written book is very valuable, and promises to be widely circulated.

Barrow Lyons' book is a completely different dish in almost every particular. The author, formerly a journalist and government worker of New Deal and World War II days, is now a free lance writer. His scope is the United States, and his concern is not with an analysis of population or resources *per se*, but with a description and evaluation of the economic and political issues of resource development, uses and control. He is concerned essentially with the most effective and desirable locus and pattern of control of, and responsibility for, our resources. However, it is quickly evident that this is a polemic against

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private and especially large-corporation control of resources, and for federal control, preferably in the T.V.A. pattern. The author gives an amazing number of accounts of the politics of all our important resources from the Robber Baron days to Dixon-Yates, some of them first-rate for succinct coverage. However, his presentation blurs the critical issues, and does not state all of the alternatives involved. Indeed, the issues and alternatives are not clearly identified and discussed until the concluding chapter. The uneven, negative, sometimes angry presentation does not establish the positive case many of us would like to see in this area.

LYLE M. HANSEN

Social Science Division
 San Francisco State College

Baltimore. Nearby, almost a decade before the dawn of this century, the subject of this autobiographical sketch grew to young manhood and had his first professional experiences in a one-room school in Somerset County. From there, to the time of his retirement at New York University, his professional endeavors took him to Florida, to Georgia, to Pennsylvania, and to Cleveland, Ohio.

Studying education at the University of Pennsylvania, Ambrose Suhrie took occasion to enrich his professional background by studying sociology with Lichtenberger, American constitutional history with Ames, and English constitutional history with Cheney. Would that more educators took occasion to enrich their backgrounds by excursions into such important by-paths!

His sincere fervor would cause his acquaintances, mistakenly to be sure, to suspect that he was an educational evangelist. His associates knew him as a wise and devoted counselor. Professional educators will remember him as one who derived great insight about events and people by "looking in," as he usually characterized it, on a host of institutions identified with the education of teachers. His delineation helps

TEACHER OF TEACHERS. By Ambrose L. Suhrie. West Rindge, New Hampshire: Richard R. Smith, 1955. 418 p. \$5.00.

As the traveler moves westward on the Pennsylvania Turnpike and approaches the Somerset intersection, his eye observes the large sign which assures him that he is passing the village of New

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JOHN A. KINNEMAN

Department of Social Science
Illinois State Normal University

Matching available income and essential expenditures is a problem for every government. Jesse Burkhead's *Government Budgeting* (Wiley, \$7.50), an incisive study of how fiscal policy is articulated through the budget process, focuses our attention on the techniques and programs of central fiscal controls. Professor Burkhead reviews budgeting in several foreign countries, notably France and Great Britain, as well as in the United States, at the national, state and local levels. Although he presents a wealth of detail on budget techniques, the reader never loses sight of the author's central focus on their use in shaping fiscal policy. At once almost a manual on method and certainly a treatise on the phi-

losophy of budgeting, this is the most important study of the subject yet to appear.

P. B.

The Role of the Military in American Foreign Policy by Burton M. Sapin and Richard C. Snyder (Doubleday Short Studies in Political Science, 95¢) is an excellent study of a subject about which too little is known. The basis of organization is somewhat disconcerting: an entire section is devoted to the problems created by the expanding role of the military, for example, but one has to go back to find a discussion of the constitutional framework within which that role is being played.

Two particularly important matters are mentioned. At times high-ranking military officers make public statements about foreign policy "with a seeming lack of discretion and sense of responsibility." And "extensive case reports on the contemporary role of the military in United States foreign policy" are lacking. This little volume is full of valuable information and is a very useful and a good one to have.

L. B. B.



THE FIRST 125 YEARS—A History of Distributive and Service Cooperation in the United States, 1829-1954. Florence E. Parker. 1956, pp. 462, illus. The authoritative volume in this field. \$5.00

FACT BOOK ON COOPERATIVES. 1955-6 developments. Summary information on major types of cooperatives. Biennial. 48 pp. \$.75

PRINCIPLES OF COOPERATION. E. S. Bogardus. 68 pp. (paper-binding) \$.50

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Resources for Citizenship is a new book published by the Citizenship Education Project (Teachers College, Columbia University, \$2.95). It is intended for all junior and senior high school teachers who feel a responsibility to teach citizenship—no matter what subject they teach, whether or not they are in schools cooperating with CEP. It contains annotations on more than 700 books, pamphlets, and audiovisual materials, as well as citations of famous documents, speeches, and articles bearing on citizenship in seven source books. The materials chosen include easy and advanced works, along with those of average reading difficulty for junior and senior high school students. The organization of the book by teaching topics makes this a useful guide for teachers.

(From *Connecticut Social Studies Topics*)

George F. Hourani's *Ethical Value* (University of Michigan Press, \$4.50) is not a general survey or introduction to this particular field of philosophy, but a presentation of Mr. Hourani's own theory, a naturalistic ethics which defines "good" as whatever is satisfying and a "right act" as one which increases satisfaction and distributes it justly. His method consists in paying attention to the ways in which such value words are used in everyday language. In attempting to clarify and complete his own system, Mr. Hourani makes the reader aware of some of the basic contemporary issues involved in the study of ethical value, although many philosophers regard a naturalistic ethics such as his as out of date.

R. E.

Not since the excellent Dombrow-Lehman collaboration of the '30's has a concise study of the U. S. Constitution appeared. A new treat-

ment by J. Mussatti with an unusual study guide by T. J. Shelly is *The Constitution of the United States: Origins, Principles and Problems* (Van Nostrand, \$1.25) with bibliographic references to well-known texts. Both teachers and students of senior and junior high will like this book whose scope includes English background through Amendment XXII.

(J.W.E. in the New York ATSS Bulletin)

Publications Received

Armstrong, William H. *Study Is Hard Work*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1957. xii + 166 p. \$2.00.

Kahn, Robert L. and Cannell, Charles F. *The Dynamics of Interviewing*. New York: John Wiley, 1957. x + 368 p. \$7.75.

Kohn, Hans. *American Nationalism (An Interpretative Essay)*. New York: Macmillan Company, 1957. xi + 272 p. \$5.00.

Lurry, Lucile L. and Alberty, Elsie J. *Developing a High School Core Program*. New York: Macmillan Company, 1957. ix + 297 p. \$7.50.

Merriam, Robert E. and Goetz, Rachem M. *Going Into Politics*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1957. vi + 216 p. \$2.50.

Michaelis, John U. *Social Studies for Children in a Democracy*. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1957. xvi + 523 p. \$5.75.

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Pierson, William W. and Gil, Frederico G. *Governments of Latin America*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1957. vii + 514 p. \$6.50.

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Richardson, John S. *Science Teaching in Secondary Schools*. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1957. xiii + 385 p. \$6.50.

Rodehaver, Myles W., Axtell, William B., and Gross, Richard E. *The Sociology of the School*. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1957. x + 262 p. \$4.00.

Taylor, F. Sherwood. *An Illustrated History of Science*. New York: Frederick A. Praeger, Inc., 1957. xii + 178 p. \$5.00.

Strang, Ruth and Bracken, Dorothy Kendall. *Making Better Readers*. Boston, Mass.: D. C. Heath, 1957. xiv + 367 p. \$4.75.

Turner, Ralph H. and Killian, Lewis M. *Collective Behavior*. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1957. x + 546 p. \$6.95.

Uttley, Marguerite and Aitchison, Alisone E. *Latin America, Africa, and Australia*. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1957. x + 406 p. \$4.48.

Walters, Jr., Raymond. *Albert Gallatin: Jeffersonian Financier and Diplomat*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1957. viii + 461 p. \$7.00.

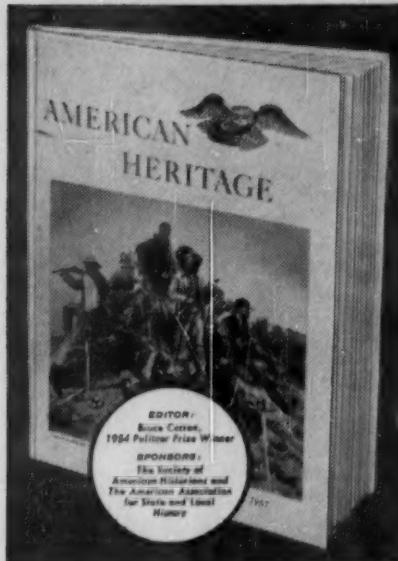
Whitney, Phyllis A. *The Highest Dream*. New York: David McKay Company, 1957. 240 p. \$3.00.

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